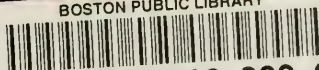


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# LABOR BULLETIN

OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF

## MASSACHUSETTS

No. 35

MARCH, 1905.

CONTAINING:

Wage Earner and Education, The  
Free Employment Offices.  
Current Comment—Trade Schools and  
Manual Training Schools.  
Labor Legislation for Women and Children.

Bulletins of Bureaus of Labor.  
Recent Legal Labor Decisions.  
Industrial Agreements.  
Excerpts.  
Statistical Abstracts.

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PUBLISHED BY THE  
BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

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*Editor: CHAS. F. PIDGIN, Chief of Bureau.*

*Associate Editors: FRANK H. DROWN, HELEN T. MCBRIDE.*

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## THE WAGE EARNER AND EDUCATION.

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In the Labor Bulletin for September, 1904, an article was published under the title of "Labor and Education," written by William J. Tucker, D.D., LL.D., President of Dartmouth College, in which he stated:

Another means of giving freedom and expansion to the wage earning population in place of a narrow and exclusive solidarity is by giving to it ready access to the higher education. There is no reason why the former experience of the New England farmer and the present experience of the Western farmer should not be repeated in the family of the intelligent wage earner. The sons of the New England farmer who were sent to college identified their families with the State and church, and with all public interests.

They lifted the family horizon. I have said that this experience may be repeated in the families of the wage earner. It is being repeated. Let me give you an illustration with which I am familiar. The students at Dartmouth are divided about as follows, according to the occupation of their fathers: Forty per cent are the sons of business men, twenty-five per cent of professional men, fifteen per cent of farmers; of the remaining twenty per cent, more than half are the sons of wage earners. The per cent from the shops now equals that from the farm. I have no doubt that this proportion will hold in most of our Eastern colleges and universities. The home of the wage earner is becoming a recruiting ground for the higher education, which no college can afford to overlook. As Professor Marshall, the English economist, has said, "Since the manual labor classes are four or five times as numerous as all other classes put together, it is not unlikely that more than half of the best natural genius that is born into the country belongs to them." And from this statement he goes on to draw the conclusion that "there is no extravagance more prejudicial to the growth of the national wealth than that wasteful negligence which allows genius which happens to be born of lowly parentage to expend itself in lowly work." So much for the necessity of fresh, virile, and self-supporting stock to the higher education, if it is to discharge its obligation to society.

Immediately after the opening of the collegiate year of 1904-5, letters were written to officers of the several colleges and universities in the Commonwealth requesting information concerning the occupations of fathers of the students then enrolled. From the replies received we have been enabled to prepare the following table which shows for each college or university considered the occupations of the fathers of students classified under the following heads: Business, Professional, Government Officials, Farmers, and Wage Earners; those remaining being included under the headings, Retired and Deceased, or Not Given.



NAMES OF COLLEGES.	OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OF STUDENTS							
	Business	Professional	Government Officials	Farmers	Wage Earners	Retired and Deceased	Not Given	Totals
<i>Colleges for Men and Coeducational Colleges of Liberal Arts.</i>	2,376	1,330	131	391	732	496	92	5,548
Amherst College, . . . . .	173	104	1	35	50	-	44	407
Boston College, . . . . .	32	15	9	15	39	-	-	110
Boston University, . . . . .	142	88	9	62	93	22	4	420
Clark University, . . . . .	47	29	-	25	39	-	-	140
French-American College, . . . . .	35	17	4	13	28	-	-	97
Harvard University, . . . . .	1,595	907	85	195	377	448	30	3,637
Tufts College, . . . . .	128	43	7	22	77	26	-	303
Williams College, . . . . .	224	127	16	24	29	-	14	434
<i>Colleges for Women.</i>	790	418	40	71	94	206	-	1,619
Lasell Seminary, . . . . .	112	23	4	9	2	-	-	150
Radcliffe College, . . . . .	183	116	19	14	44	31	-	407
Smith College, . . . . .	495	279	17	48	48	175	-	1,062
<i>Schools of Technology.</i>	878	246	61	133	224	120	332	1,994
Massachusetts Agricultural College, .	56	15	2	59	38	4	12	186
Massachusetts Institute of Technology,	637	165	49	48	153	116	250	1,418
Simmons College, . . . . .	185	66	10	26	33	-	70	390
<i>Normal and Training Schools.</i>	463	101	61	145	754	134	-	1,658
Boston Normal School, . . . . .	42	14	28	-	167	49	-	300
Massachusetts Normal Art School, .	119	21	1	11	107	76	-	335
State Normal School (Bridgewater), .	59	13	7	29	122	-	-	230
State Normal School (Fitchburg), .	28	6	3	19	48	-	-	104
State Normal School (Framingham), .	66	8	3	14	98	-	-	189
Training School for Teachers (Cambridge),	17	6	1	2	2	-	-	28
Training School for Teachers (Lowell),	7	6	-	-	4	-	-	17
Training School for Teachers (Salem),	74	21	11	26	76	-	-	208
Training School for Teachers (Westfield),	27	4	-	24	44	9	-	108
Training School for Teachers (Worcester),	24	2	7	20	86	-	-	139

## RECAPITULATION.

Colleges for men and coeducational colleges of liberal arts, . . . . .	2,376	1,330	131	391	732	496	92	5,548
Colleges for women, . . . . .	790	418	40	71	94	206	-	1,619
Schools of technology, . . . . .	878	246	61	133	224	120	332	1,994
Normal and training schools, . . . .	463	101	61	145	754	134	-	1,658
TOTALS, . . . . .	4,507	2,095	293	740	1,804	956	424	10,819

The occupations of the fathers of 10,819 students are shown in the above table. In colleges for men and coeducational colleges of liberal arts appear 5,548, or 51.28 per cent of the total number regarding whom replies were received; in colleges for women, 1,619, or 14.96 per cent; in schools of technology, 1,994, or 18.43 per cent; and in normal and training schools, 1,658, or 15.33 per cent. Of the 10,819 reported, 4,507 were the sons or daughters of business men; 2,095 of professional men; 293 of government officials; 740 of farmers; 1,804 of wage earners; and 956 whose fathers were either retired or dead. In the remaining 424 instances the replies to the inquiry were not sufficiently definite to classify. Reducing the above figures to percentages to compare with the students of Dartmouth College, we secure the following table:

## Percentages.

NAMES OF COLLEGES.	OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OF STUDENTS							
	Busi- ness	Pro- fessional	Govern- ment Officials	Farm- ers	Wage Earners	Retired and Deceased	Not Given	Totals
<i>Colleges for Men and Coeducational Colleges of Liberal Arts.</i>	42.83	23.97	2.36	7.05	13.19	8.94	1.66	100.00
Amherst College, . . . . .	42.51	25.55	0.25	8.60	12.28	-	10.81	100.00
Boston College, . . . . .	29.09	13.64	8.18	13.64	35.45	-	-	100.00
Boston University, . . . . .	33.81	20.95	2.14	14.76	22.15	5.24	0.95	100.00
Clark University, . . . . .	33.57	20.71	-	17.86	27.86	-	-	100.00
French-American College, . . . . .	36.08	17.53	4.12	13.40	28.87	-	-	100.00
Harvard University, . . . . .	43.85	24.94	2.34	5.36	10.37	12.32	0.82	100.00
Tufts College, . . . . .	42.25	14.19	2.31	7.26	25.41	8.58	-	100.00
Williams College, . . . . .	51.61	29.26	3.69	5.53	6.68	-	3.23	100.00
<i>Colleges for Women.</i>	48.80	25.82	2.47	4.38	5.81	12.72	-	100.00
Lasell Seminary, . . . . .	74.67	15.33	2.67	6.00	1.33	-	-	100.00
Radcliffe College, . . . . .	44.96	28.50	4.67	3.44	10.81	7.62	-	100.00
Smith College, . . . . .	46.61	26.27	1.60	4.52	4.52	16.48	-	100.00
<i>Schools of Technology.</i>	44.03	12.34	3.06	6.67	11.23	6.02	16.65	100.00
Massachusetts Agricultural College, . . . . .	30.11	8.06	1.08	31.72	20.43	2.15	6.45	100.00
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, . . . . .	44.92	11.64	3.46	3.38	10.79	8.18	17.63	100.00
Simmons College, . . . . .	47.44	16.92	2.56	6.67	8.46	-	17.95	100.00
<i>Normal and Training Schools.</i>	27.92	6.09	3.68	8.75	45.48	8.08	-	100.00
Boston Normal School, . . . . .	14.00	4.67	9.33	-	55.67	16.33	-	100.00
Massachusetts Normal Art School, . . . . .	35.52	6.27	0.30	3.28	31.94	22.69	-	100.00
State Normal School (Bridgewater), . . . . .	25.65	5.65	3.04	12.61	53.05	-	-	100.00
State Normal School (Fitchburg), . . . . .	26.92	5.77	2.89	18.27	46.15	-	-	100.00
State Normal School (Framingham), . . . . .	34.92	4.23	1.59	7.41	51.85	-	-	100.00
Training School for Teachers (Cam- bridge), . . . . .	60.72	21.43	3.57	7.14	7.14	-	-	100.00
Training School for Teachers (Lowell), . . . . .	41.18	35.29	-	-	23.53	-	-	100.00
Training School for Teachers (Salem), . . . . .	35.58	10.09	5.29	12.50	36.54	-	-	100.00
Training School for Teachers (West- field), . . . . .	25.00	3.71	-	22.22	40.74	8.33	-	100.00
Training School for Teachers (Worce- ster), . . . . .	17.27	1.44	5.03	14.39	61.87	-	-	100.00

## RECAPITULATION.

Colleges for men and coeducational colleges of liberal arts, . . . . .	42.83	23.97	2.36	7.05	13.19	8.94	1.66	100.00
Colleges for women, . . . . .	48.80	25.82	2.47	4.38	5.81	12.72	-	100.00
Schools of technology, . . . . .	44.03	12.34	3.06	6.67	11.23	6.02	16.65	100.00
Normal and training schools, . . . . .	27.92	6.09	3.68	8.75	45.48	8.08	-	100.00
TOTALS, . . . . .	41.66	19.36	2.71	6.84	16.67	8.84	3.92	100.00

We find that of the total number of students, 10,819, 41.66 per cent were the sons or daughters of business men; 19.36 per cent stated that their fathers were clergymen, physicians, or other professional men; 2.71 per cent were the sons or daughters of government officials; 6.84 per cent reported their fathers as farmers; 8.84 per cent were of the classes either deceased or retired; 3.92 per cent did not state definitely; and 16.67 per cent were the sons or daughters of wage earners. Bearing in mind the percentages quoted by President Tucker, namely, "Forty per cent are the sons of business men, twenty-five per cent of professional men, fifteen per cent of farmers; of the remaining twenty per cent, more than half are the sons of wage earners," it is seen that, when the data from all the colleges of the Commonwealth are considered, the latter class had a representation of over 16 per cent.

In the colleges for men and coeducational colleges of liberal arts, the children of wage earners numbered 732, or 13.19 per cent of all students (5,548) in this grade; in the colleges for women, they numbered 94, or 5.81 per cent of the total number (1,619); in the schools of technology, they numbered 224, or 11.23 per cent of the total number (1,994); and in the normal and training schools, they numbered 754, or 45.48 per cent of the total number (1,658) in these schools.

Considering the colleges in detail we find some interesting facts; for example, Harvard University is often called the rich man's college, yet of its enrollment over 10 per cent are the offspring of the wage earner, and its women's department, Radcliffe, shows a similar percentage, namely, 10.81. Boston College has 35.45 per cent of its total enrollment included in the class "wage earners," and Clark University reports that 27.86 per cent of the students are the sons of wage earners. But it is when we consider the normal schools and training schools that we find the greatest percentages in this class, while the schools which are located in the midst of the busiest industrial communities also exhibit very high percentages in this regard.

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### FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

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The question of establishing free employment offices in Massachusetts, under State supervision, has been advocated and given public consideration for years. It has been agitated in seven sessions of the General Court since 1894, and is before the present legislature. The promoters of the measure urge that the State should aid in providing employment for the unemployed, so far as lies within its power, in the same line as it enacts various laws for the benefit and welfare of its inhabitants. Naturally, those persons who are maintaining private intelligence offices as a means of livelihood are strong opponents to the enactment of such a law. They allege that the abuses and extortions that are practised in other States do not exist in Massachusetts, as the law regulating the operations of these offices is strict and does not admit of such action. The private intelligence agencies in the city of Boston are under control of the Board of Police. The number of such licensed agencies now in operation in Boston is about 80.

In 1894, upon a petition to establish free public employment offices in Massachusetts, the legislature passed a resolve directing this Bureau to investigate municipal employment bureaus. A special report was made to the General Court which was referred to the Committee on Labor, said Committee ruling that no legislation was necessary. In 1903, the Bureau was again directed by legislative act to consider the



matter of establishing free public employment offices in the Commonwealth. In accordance therewith, a report was made to the legislature of 1904. As this report was broad and comprehensive in its scope, covering information of free employment offices in foreign countries as well as in the United States, we will consider in the present article only the operations of the different free agencies during the year 1904, with such pertinent remarks as the director or commissioner deemed expedient to make. The year in which the Bureau was established with dates of subsequent amendments are also given for each State.

As some changes have been made in the foreign bureaus since our report on the subject in 1903, and as new free employment offices have been established in some countries, we append accounts of agencies in such instances.

**Connecticut.** Free employment offices in this State were created by the laws of 1901, and an Act also relating to the subject was passed in 1903.

The Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Connecticut states that the employees who are furnished with situations are not classified, so that we are unable to state the percentage of skilled labor receiving employment as against unskilled labor.

The five free public employment offices located in Hartford, New Haven, Bridgeport, Waterbury, and Norwich have given great success in 1904. Norwich being a small city, it is to be expected that the number of situations procured for applicants there would be small as compared with the other cities mentioned.

The good accomplished by these offices, in the opinion of the Commissioner, cannot be overestimated, the results of their operations being far reaching and meeting with the approval of the general public.

The number of applications for help for the five bureaus during the year ending November 30, 1904, aggregated 9,285, there being applications for 2,666 males and for 6,619 females; the applications for situations numbered 12,723, including 5,348 male and 7,375 female applications; the number of positions filled during the year was 7,866, of this number 2,505 being males and 5,361 females.

It will be seen from each of these classifications that the females are largely in preponderance, there being over twice as many females supplied with positions as there were males.

The total cost of maintaining the five bureaus for the year 1904 was \$8,609; the per capita cost of the positions filled in the entire State was \$1.09, although the per capita cost in Hartford was but 72 cents.

**Illinois.** The law of 1899 originally creating free public employment offices was repealed in 1903 and a new law enacted.

In answer to the inquiry whether the four offices are patronized by skilled or unskilled labor, the Commissioner states that this classification is not made except as to manual labor for the males and domestic service for the females, these two classes comprising nearly 65 per cent of the total number asked for by those desiring help, those wanting situations, and those procuring positions.

For the year ending September 30, 1904, there were 36,710 applications for help, 21,625 being for males and 15,085 for females; the applicants for situations included 23,763 males and 13,730 females, totaling to 37,493; the number of positions filled during the year aggregated 31,727, including 19,408 male and 12,319 female. A remarkable fact attending these figures is the large majority of males in each class.

In the applications for male help, 11,450 were for manual labor and 2,630 for domestic service, these two classes comprising 65.11 per cent of the total number of applications for males; of the applications for female help, 13,278, or 88.02 per cent, were for domestic service.

Considering the male applications for employment we find that there were 10,497 for manual labor and 3,108 for domestic service, these two totaling to 13,605, or 57.25 per cent of the total male applications; of the total number of females making applications for employment there were 12,001, or 87.41 per cent, who desired positions in domestic service. There were 10,109 males who received positions at manual labor and 2,565 in domestic service, these two branches of employment comprising 65.30 per cent of the total number of male positions filled. As to the 12,319 females securing positions, 11,037, or 89.59 per cent, were in domestic service.

The total cost of maintaining the three offices in Chicago and the one in Peoria for the year was \$31,975, the per capita cost of the positions filled being \$1.01.

**Kansas.** There have been no amendments to the original law creating free employment offices in Kansas, approved in 1901. Topeka is the location of the principal office.

The Director of the Free Employment Bureau states that the bureau furnishes more harvest hands to the farmers of the State than any other one bureau in the country, the number called for this season being over 20,000, of which, outside of the agencies, it furnished fully 10,000 positions by advertising and correspondence.

The number of male applications for help during the year ending December 31, 1904, was 323, the female numbering 199, the total being 522; the number of applications for situations totaled to 4,512, there being 4,282 from males and 230 from females; the number of positions filled during the year under consideration comprised 4,361 males and 238 females, a total of 4,599.

The total cost of maintaining the office was \$1,452, the per capita cost of the positions filled being 31½ cents.

**Maryland.** The free employment office in this State was created by the legislature of 1902.

On account of the year closing February 28, the Commissioner states that the annual report of the free employment agency of the State is now being prepared, the data not being at present available. He also states that owing to the small appropriation allotted to the Bureau of Statistics and Information, efforts in the direction of providing free employment have necessarily been limited, but the hope is expressed that the law will be amended which will increase their opportunities in 1906.

**Minnesota.** The Duluth Free Employment Office, this being the principal office established under the laws of 1901, is entirely under city control. The Director states that the office at Duluth has worked in connection with the State Bureau of Wisconsin at Superior, and that they have succeeded in being of mutual advantage to each other.

The operations of the free employment office for the year 1904 were very successful. Employment was furnished to 3,648 persons, 3,598 being males and 50 being females; of the number furnished with employment, 2,227 resided in the city of Duluth, 839 in the State of Minnesota, and 582 in other States.

The number of applications for situations during the year aggregated about 5,050, there being about 5,000 applications from males and 50 from females.

The total cost of maintaining the Bureau for the year was \$1,420, this being an average of 39 cents per capita cost of the positions filled.

**Missouri.** Free employment offices were established in Missouri under the laws of 1899. They are operated in three cities: St. Louis, Kansas City, and St. Joseph.

The Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and Inspection states in his report for the year 1904 in regard to the three employment offices as follows: "It is gratifying to note that the success of the State Free Employment offices fully justifies the wisdom of their creation, and that which was at first only an experiment has become one of the most useful branches of the department. The fact that they bring employment to a large number of needy and deserving citizens, free of expense, more than compensates for the small outlay by the State, and with proper encouragement the sphere of their usefulness may be largely extended. The magnitude and efficiency of the system are shown in the reports from the different offices."

The total number of applications for help was 36,443, of which number 32,715 were applicants for male help and 3,728 for female help; the number of male applicants for positions was 14,099, the female applicants for positions numbering 1,843, showing a total of 15,942 for both sexes; the number of positions procured was 9,047, including 7,870 male applicants placed in positions and 1,177 female applicants.

The applications for 1904 show a demand for more skilled labor than was the case in 1903. This is also true as to the character of positions filled, the number of skilled workmen obtaining situations at the Bureau being largely in excess of the number in 1903.

**Montana.** In 1897 the law was passed providing for free public employment offices in Montana in incorporated cities, to be maintained by the cities, the report of the operations of said offices to be made to the Commissioner of Agriculture, Labor, and Industry. The principal office is located at Butte.

The applications for help at the Butte office for the year ending November 30, 1904, aggregated 7,803; the number of applications for work was 11,104, including 5,999 males and 5,105 females; the positions filled numbered 7,125, there being 3,762 filled by males and 3,363 by females.

As to the class of positions procured by males, 628 were in hotels and restaurants and 2,126 were as laborers, these two classes forming 73.21 per cent of the total number of male positions filled; considering the females, 609 received positions in hotels and restaurants and 2,229 in domestic service, these two classes totalizing to 2,838, or 84.39 per cent of the female positions filled.

The number of positions filled in the city aggregated 3,366, those outside of the city 2,573.

Considering the applications for help and those of persons desiring employment, as well as the positions filled, the year 1904 shows a gain of nearly 100 per cent over 1903.

The cost of maintaining the Butte Free Employment Office for 1904 was \$1,200 (appropriated by the city) besides rent and printing. The per capita cost of the positions filled was 17 cents.

**Nebraska.** The Free Employment Bureau in Nebraska (located in Lincoln) is conducted according to the law passed in 1897 in connection with the Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics.

The number of applications for help during the year ending November 30, 1904, was 151, including 140 for males and 11 for females; the number of applications for situations included 2,324 males

and 43 females, a total of 2,367; the number of positions filled during the year aggregated 2,269, 2,249 being male and 20 female.

The Commissioner reports that the very large number of applications that the Bureau receives for unskilled labor is accounted for by the fact that a number of people apply for work and are supplied with positions during the harvest season.

The cost of each position filled was estimated to be 20 cents.

**New York.** The original Act creating free public employment offices in New York was approved in 1896, but a new law was enacted in 1897 known as Article III of the General Labor Law. Although the law provides that offices can be organized in all cities of the first class, New York City is the only one having as yet established a free employment agency.

The Superintendent states, in reply to an inquiry as to the character of positions filled, that there were many females skilled in the particular line of work for which they applied or which they eventually obtained. Concerning the males it is a little different, there being practically few applications for skilled workers from employers owing to the fact that the skilled workmen in New York are quite thoroughly organized, and have their own employment bureaus which the organizations maintain by payment of dues by the members. In this way comparatively few skilled workmen seek the public employment office.

It is reported that the year 1904 was the best year since the Bureau was established for supplying agricultural laborers, work being found for 309 men in this particular line, there being many more applications for help than there were agricultural laborers to fill the positions. Some of the men who were supplied with positions as agricultural laborers went to work on farms, taking employment as partners or as it is commonly termed "working farms on shares." It is also reported that there is a constant demand for help at the New York Office, but the fact that a person is a little advanced in years makes it difficult to find employment.

The number of applications for help during the year ending December 31, 1904, aggregated 4,542, including 815 for males and 3,727 for females; the applications for situations numbered 6,650, there being 3,754 from males and 2,896 from females; the number of male positions filled during the year aggregated 1,004, while the female aggregated 3,638, totalizing to 4,642 positions filled.

The total cost of maintaining the agency for the year 1904 was \$5,000, the per capita cost of the positions filled being \$1.08.

**Ohio** Ohio was the first State in the Union to establish free employment offices, the law being passed April 28, 1890; amendments were added thereto in 1891, 1902, and 1904.

The number of applications for help during the year aggregated 23,074, including 8,765 for males and 14,309 for females; there were 19,333 applications for situations, 9,423 from males and 9,910 from females; the positions filled during the year ending December 31, 1904, numbered 15,975, 7,270 positions being for males, 8,705 for females.

The total cost of maintaining the five offices (one each in Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati, Dayton, and Toledo) for the year ending October 31, 1904, was \$12,897, the per capita cost of the positions filled being 81 cents.

**Washington.** In 1894 a free employment office was established in Seattle as an amendment to the city charter. The city accepted a new charter in 1896, and the important features of the old law regarding free employment offices were retained, but the bureau was made a branch of the Civil Service Department under the supervision of the Commissioner of Labor Statistics. There is no State law providing for such offices.

The principal employment office in Washington is located at Seattle. During the year ending December 31, 1904, there were 17,971 applications for male help and 3,787 for female help, a total of 21,758. Practically all the applications for help were filled. The Labor Commissioner of the city of Seattle states that the orders for skilled help included only trades and professions; the orders for female help were unclassified, as nearly all of these positions required more or less skill, including such work as housekeeping, cooking, nursing, housework, soliciting, etc.

The total cost of maintaining the Seattle office, exclusive of rent, telephone, fuel, and light, was \$1,308, making the per capita cost of the positions filled 6.36 cents. As the office in Tacoma was in operation only a part of last year, no report has been received from same.

The Public Employment Office at Everett, which was in operation less than a year, has recently been discontinued on account of a technical point raised showing that the ordinance creating the office was illegal.

The report of the office at Everett during 1904 shows that there were 1,888 calls for help, 50 per cent of these being from out of the city. The record of positions called for indicates a large variety of occupations, many of which were skilled labor.

**West Virginia.** A free employment bureau in West Virginia was established by the laws of 1901, under the supervision of the Commissioner of Labor at Wheeling.

The Commissioner of Labor of West Virginia in the Eighth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor states that the report of the operations of the Employment Bureau for 1904 shows the wisdom of legislative action in creating the bureau and the necessity for the continuance of that department, the record of the institution for the first three years of its existence being most gratifying.



The number of applications for help for the year ending May 15, 1904, was 2,008, 1,560 being for males and 448 for females; there were 2,009 male applications for employment and 230 female applications for employment, totaling to 2,239. Of this number 1,711 procured situations, including positions for 1,504 males and 207 females. This report shows that of those applying for employment over 76 per cent were supplied with positions.

**Wisconsin.** The law establishing free employment offices in Wisconsin was passed in 1901, but was repealed and a new law enacted in 1903. Although the law stipulates that four free employment offices can be established in the State, there have been but two offices opened, one at Milwaukee and one at West Superior.

During the year ending June 30, 1904, there were 8,991 applications for help, 6,102 of these being for males and 2,889 for females; about 15 per cent of these applications was for skilled labor; the number of applications for situations was 7,362, including 5,965 from males and 1,397 from females; the total males procuring positions numbered 5,934, the females 1,393, totaling to 7,327 positions filled.

It will be seen that the number of positions filled formed 99.52 per cent of the total applications for situations; the cost of each position filled was 41 cents.

The Commissioner states that most of the applications for situations by skilled laborers are those whose age seems to count against them.

The Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor of Industrial Statistics of Michigan reports that the offices which were started in that State in 1901, without legislative enactment, were discontinued only from the fact that there was more demand for labor than there was labor to supply the demand. A bill has been presented to the present legislature providing for the establishment of free employment offices in that State with a good prospect of its enactment.

The Commissioner of Labor of Minnesota states that a bill will undoubtedly be presented to the present legislature for the creation of such offices. It will be borne in mind that the Free Employment Bureau at Duluth is not operated under State law, but under the charter of the city.

**Finland.** The question of public employment offices for Finland was first officially considered in 1896, but no definite result was obtained at that time. The need of such service, however, was constantly urged, and on January 1, 1903, by decision of the common council of the city, a municipal employment bureau was opened in Helsingfors, modeled upon those already in existence in Norway and Sweden. During the month of January, a convention was held to consider the advisability of establishing such bureaus in other cities and, in addition, a central office; the administrative councils of seven cities were represented in the convention. The proposition to establish a central office was defeated; but in December, 1903, a local municipal employment office was opened at Åbo, and in January, 1904, this example was followed by four other cities.

The activity of the Helsingfors office during its first year, 1903, is shown by the following figures:

CLASSIFICATION.	Males	Females	Both Sexes
Applications for help, . . . . .	2,683	532	3,215
Applications for situations, . . . . .	3,036	849	3,945
Positions filled, . . . . .	2,461	287	2,748

— *Soziale Rundschau, Vienna, March, 1904.*

**France.** On March 14, 1904, a law, applying to both France and Algeria, was adopted. By its provisions paid employment bureaus may be suppressed, a fair indemnity being allowed. New bureaus authorized after the promulgation of the law shall not be entitled to indemnity in case of suppression. Free employment bureaus established by municipalities, mixed unions, unions of workmen or employers, labor exchanges, mutual aid societies, and other legally constituted associations are not subject to authorization. In every commune the mayor shall keep a register of all demands for help



or for employment for the free use of the public, and a municipal bureau shall be maintained by each commune of over 10,000 inhabitants. It shall be counted a punishable offence for any officer or clerk of a free employment bureau to accept fees from persons obtaining employment, and the expense of maintaining paid bureaus shall be borne by employers without any fees from employees. No employment agency may be kept in connection with an inn, restaurant, lodging-house, or saloon. Bureaus dealing with a single trade shall be suppressed at once. Indemnities for suppression of bureaus shall be paid by the communes. All persons in any way connected with the management or working of an illegal bureau shall be liable to punishment. Bureaus for nurses and for theatrical, circus, and music-hall performers are not subject to this law. — *Revue du Travail, April, 1904, Brussels, Belgium.*

**Hungary.** Up to 1899, the business of employment offices in Hungary had been carried on entirely by private individuals or trade organizations. In 1898 the Council of Industry, in consideration of the fact that there were 100,000 unemployed workmen in Hungary, urged the government and the city of Budapest to organize an employment bureau, at the public expense, to regulate the labor market. Early in 1899 such a bureau was created. The State and the city appointed representatives to whom were added delegates from the chamber of commerce and industry. In addition, the recognized sick benefit societies were invited to furnish two delegates each. From the first session of the committee the labor delegates stood out against the nomination of a government official for the position of director, and declared that workingmen would never make use of the bureau while it continued to supply employees for employers against whom a strike was in progress.

In the course of the industrial crisis of 1902, thousands of idle men besieged the bureau demanding employment, and threatening to demolish the building, which had to be protected by troops. To satisfy the workingmen, the number of labor delegates in the directors' committee was increased; these delegates continued to demand the exclusion of non-labor elements and the suppression of the by-law authorizing the bureau to supply workmen in the places of strikers. The committee finally voted to abolish this by-law and the decision was ratified in 1903 by the Minister of Commerce. Hungary is at present one of the few countries having a public employment bureau whose regulations forbid the furnishing of employees for patrons against whom a strike is in progress.

The following tabular statement shows the activity of the Budapest Bureau during 1901 and 1902:

CLASSIFICATION.	1901	1902
Applications for help, . . . . .	44,544	47,319
Applications for situations, . . . . .	87,015	86,940
Positions filled, . . . . .	31,284	34,432

The number of positions filled in 1901 formed 35.95 per cent of the applications, the corresponding percentage in 1902 being 39.61.

The Minister of Commerce has announced his intention of establishing a similar bureau in every city or town having a chamber of commerce and industry, the expense of supporting the bureaus to be borne in each case by the municipality, the chamber, and the State. Five large offices and six small offices are to be established first; the probable cost of the large offices is estimated at 6,000 crowns (\$1,218) annually, of the small offices at 4,710 crowns (\$956). A national office is to be established at Budapest through which the local offices are to be kept in touch. — *Bulletin de l'Office du Travail, Paris, February, 1904.*

**The Netherlands.** The following table shows the work of labor exchanges in the Netherlands during 1903 and nine months of 1904:

CLASSIFICATION.	1903	1904		
		First quarter	Second quarter	Third quarter
Applications for help, . . . . .	4,871	1,238	1,306	1,330
Applications for situations, . . . . .	9,347	2,199	2,397	2,611
Positions filled, . . . . .	3,871	938	1,137	1,070

These figures represent 22 occupations, the heaviest lines as to number of positions filled being for laundresses (297 in 1903, and 291 in the nine months of 1904) and for machine workers, machinists, stokers, etc. (105 in 1903 and 139 in the nine months of 1904). — *Tijdschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, Netherlands, 1904.*

**Norway.** The work of municipal free employment offices in Norway in Christiania, Bergen, and Stavanger for 1903 is shown in the following table:

CITIES AND SEX.	Applications for Help	Applications for Situations	Positions Filled
Christiansia, . . . . .	10,777	21,715	10,075
Males, . . . . .	4,331	13,287	4,099
Females, . . . . .	6,446	8,428	5,976
Bergen, . . . . .	2,152	3,808	1,860
Males, . . . . .	1,242	2,501	1,105
Females, . . . . .	910	1,307	755
Stavanger, . . . . .	1,065	2,000	914
Males, . . . . .	881	1,685	813
Females, . . . . .	181	315	101

— *Statistisk Aarbog, Norway, 1904.*

**Switzerland.** Under an ordinance dated March 17, 1903, free public employment offices were created in the Canton of Aargau, the service consisting of a cantonal labor exchange with a branch office in each district. The cantonal labor exchange is an agency of the department of public aid, the administrative council for which department is increased by six members, for the discharge of added functions, equal representation being given to associations of artisans, manufacturers, and agricultural workers. The canton bears 30 per cent of the expense of maintaining these employment bureaus, the remainder of the expense being apportioned among all the communes of the canton.

An employer's application for help is valid for six days, beginning with the day following that on which the application is made, and immediate notice must be given the office when a position has been filled. Persons seeking employment must apply in person to one of the offices.

The offices are open every day except Sundays and holidays. The cantonal labor exchange serves as intermediary between the districts in regulating the labor market, each district office being furnished a list of all vacant situations throughout the canton. The ordinance took effect July 1, 1903. (*Annuaire de la Législation du Travail, 1903. Belgium, 1904.*)

The following table shows the activity of the employment office maintained by the municipal labor office of Zürich in 1902 and 1903:

CLASSIFICATION.	1902			1903		
	Males	Females	Both Sexes	Males	Females	Both Sexes
Applications for help, . . . . .	7,000	5,990	12,990	8,222	7,611	15,833
Applications for situations, . . . . .	11,841	4,594	16,435	11,818	4,670	16,488
Positions filled, . . . . .	5,098	3,834	8,932	5,950	5,447	11,397

On July 5, 1903, through the initiative of the labor office at Zürich, a conference of presidents of all the Swiss labor offices was held at which a commission of seven persons was appointed for the following work: To urge the administrative council to establish a federal labor office, one function of which should be to keep a general list of vacancies according to reports furnished by the local employment offices; to determine whether, in the meantime, one of the existing offices might not undertake the duties of a central office; to obtain half rate railroad fares for persons sent by the public employment bureaus to take positions more than 25 kilometers distant, also exemption from postage for all mail sent from communal employment offices. For the canton of Zürich alone a change of this sort was made at the beginning of 1903 when the work of the public relief stations in finding work for the unemployed was merged with that of the municipal labor offices. — *Soziale Rundschau, Vienna, September, 1904.*

### SUMMARY.

In order that the reader may see at a glance the operations of the different free employment offices in the United States, we have brought the data together in the following table:

STATES.*	MALES			FEMALES			BOTH SEXES		
	Applica- tions for Help	Applica- tions for Situa- tions	Posi- tions Filled	Applica- tions for Help	Applica- tions for Situa- tions	Posi- tions Filled	Applica- tions for Help	Applica- tions for Situa- tions	Posi- tions Filled
Connecticut, . . .	2,636	5,348	2,505	6,619	7,375	5,304	9,285	12,723	7,803
Illinois, . . . .	21,625	23,763	19,408	15,085	13,730	12,349	36,710	37,493	31,727
Kansas, . . . .	323	4,282	4,361	199	230	238	522	4,512	4,599
Minnesota, . . .	—	5,000	3,538	—	50	50	—	5,050	3,588
Missouri, . . . .	32,715	14,099	7,870	3,728	1,843	1,177	36,443	15,942	9,047
Montana, . . . .	—	5,999	3,762	—	5,105	3,365	7,803	11,104	7,125
Nebraska, . . . .	110	2,324	2,249	43	43	20	151	2,367	2,269
New York, . . . .	815	3,754	1,001	3,727	2,896	3,638	4,542	6,650	4,642
Ohio, . . . . .	8,765	9,423	7,270	14,300	9,010	8,705	23,074	19,333	15,975
Washington,† . .	17,974	—	—	3,787	—	—	21,758	—	—
West Virginia, . .	1,560	2,009	1,504	448	230	207	2,008	2,239	1,711
Wisconsin, . . . .	6,402	5,965	5,334	2,889	1,397	1,393	8,991	7,362	7,327

\* Maryland did not make returns.

† Seattle office only. Practically all applications were filled.

It can readily be seen from the table the good work that these agencies accomplished in 1904 in finding employment for the unemployed. In the reports to the Bureau on the subject there was not a single derogatory criticism as to the work of the offices. On the contrary, in many cases the success of the undertaking was especially remarked upon, it being stated that the offices were gaining the public confidence year by year inasmuch as they were fulfilling the needs for which they were established.

## CURRENT COMMENT ON LABOR QUESTIONS.

[The Bureau does not necessarily indorse any of the views or opinions printed under this heading, its object being rather to present diverse views on labor questions, leaving the reader to draw his individual conclusions from the testimony or information supplied. The comments, as a rule, are presented in a condensed form; the titles of books, magazines, and newspapers, from which extracts are made, follow the articles, the date of publication, when known, being also given.]

### Trade Schools.

#### *Law Relating to Industrial and Trade Schools in Massachusetts.*

A town may establish and maintain one or more industrial schools, and the school committee shall employ the teachers, prescribe the arts, trades and occupations to be taught therein, and have the general control and management thereof; but it shall not expend for any such school an amount exceeding the appropriation specifically made therefor, nor compel a pupil to study any trade, art or occupation without the consent of his parent or guardian. Attendance upon such school shall not take the place of the attendance upon public schools required by law. [Chap. 42, § 10, Revised Laws, 1902.]

#### *Industrial and Trade Schools.*

No effort should be spared to keep Massachusetts to the front in the industrial world. Since the practical abolition of apprenticeship systems and the specialization of labor in most of our mills and factories, there is but little opportunity

for learning a trade. To-day most workers understand but one small part of an industry. Their opportunities for promotion are greatly lessened by this fact, and the difficulty of obtaining men qualified for foremen and superintendents is often great. A practical knowledge of an industry as a whole, and of the sciences upon which it rests, would open the doors to promotion for many bright workers now compelled to work at a machine or bench. If a considerable part of our factory employees had a more comprehensive knowledge of the industry in which they were engaged, they would be quicker to appreciate and adopt improvements, we would have better foremen and superintendents, our factories would be better conducted, and our industries would make greater progress.

In my opinion the industrial and trade schools are largely responsible for the great advancement made in many industries in Germany and England. We now import millions of dollars' worth of goods that could and should be produced here.



Technical knowledge would not only enable our workers to produce these goods at home, but would greatly increase our export trade.

In my judgment, Massachusetts made a good investment when it gave financial encouragement to our textile schools and our nautical training school. I believe we should have similar schools in other industries.

I would also suggest the advisability of agricultural schools, where a practical knowledge of horticulture, forestry, and of the animal industries shall be taught. Small rural schools of this kind scattered throughout the State and inexpensively conducted would, in my opinion, not only do much to keep the country boys at home, but would cause our New England farms to become as productive and profitable as is possible. — *Address of His Excellency, William L. Douglas, to the Two Branches of the Legislature of Massachusetts, January 5, 1905.*

#### *As to Trade Schools.*

Governor Douglas did a real service to the public in his Monday evening speech at Brockton, in which he pointed out the economic and industrial value of trade schools. By some these institutions have been regarded as too Utopian for this age, and by others as a menace to the well-being of the organizations for the uplifting of labor. This attitude has been officially taken by workmen's unions in this and other States, and their objections, while admittedly founded on self-interest, have been of influence as coming from those who were in the actual field.

Now comes a champion for the trade schools, who is not only Governor of Massachusetts, but a practical man in his knowledge of labor. He has worked with his own hands, and he has employed thousands of other hands to work for him. He realizes both sides of industrial questions. And when he strongly approves of trade schools for the increasing of skilled labor, at the same time declaring that his own great industry is handicapped by lack of expert workmen, we believe his views will be accepted as sound.

It is an economic fallacy to assume that there can be harm in widespread technical education for the young. Knowledge never did and never will harm a community or a nation. If labor organizations cannot assimilate a diffusion of technical skill, they should remodel themselves accordingly. — *Boston Journal, March 1, 1905.*

#### *The Trade School Plan.*

A conference is to be held to-day, in this city, to make the first move towards a great trade school. The strong public sentiment in favor of a trade school that shall be the result of some sort of a treaty between the Franklin fund, the Wentworth fund trustees and the Massachusetts Mechanics' Association has one exception. The central labor union of Boston and some labor unions outside of the city have voted against trade schools generally. They are the one thing that comes nearest to what Franklin wanted and what he

left his money for. But the Franklin fund trustees do not care to run up against any labor sentiment, so that none of Franklin's legacy is likely to go directly to any trade school enterprise. However, if the "Franklin Institute" (a combination of night schools, library, lecture courses, and general education) is supported by the Franklin fund, there is still every reason why it should be run in close sympathy and some tangible connection with the trades school which the others are going to build up. If the Franklin fund trustees get too far away from what the public wants, they will make a big mistake. They are in charge of a trust for the city of Boston; and they cannot go merely on their own ideas and inclinations without being unfair and dishonest to their trust.

The stand taken by the labor bodies is poor judgment. The man who tries to limit the amount of good, intelligent, skilled labor in any country is working against the interests of every wage earner in that country. It is not good labor, but bad labor (and therefore cheap) that scales down wages. The more skilled labor a country has, the more certain it is to capture the world's trade and to be prosperous. The less skilled labor there is in a country, the more likely that country is to come upon hard times which will throw out of work many of the very men who have "cornered" the labor market. To limit the amount of work any wage-earner may do is to put just that much premium on idleness, carelessness and shiftlessness. The industrial history of Great Britain in the past 15 years shows the thing pretty clearly. As the hours of labor and the day's work have been cut down more and more by the labor unions, the British have lost more and more of their foreign markets; and wages have begun to go down, while there is less and less work done. And if the "closed shop" had been a little more common in British industries, the change for the worse would have come even quicker.

So, here in Massachusetts the cotton mills have lost a great market because of labor rules or labor laws, which the Southern mills would never obey. A good deal of the leather and shoe industry of New England has moved West to get away from the labor rules, for the unions now control the industry here. In Pennsylvania the glass blowers' union was the strongest known, and kept the closest corporation. Yet many members of the union are now out of work. They killed off their own work by preventing the employers from hiring more men while the industry was more prosperous. The bigger and better the trades schools, anywhere, the more bright, young, skilled workmen the schools turn out, the better it is going to be for labor interests generally, in that section. Work is always plentiful where the work is best done, if the best workmen are willing always to give their work when it is needed. The introduction of schools of chemistry, of design, etc., in the Prussian textile industries has been followed by such prosperity as those industries never had before.



Whether the Franklin fund goes directly to build up trades schools, or not, it should help to give some sort of education to the boy or girl who is fitting to be a wage earner. And the best way to do this will be for the Franklin Institute to be in the closest relation to the trades schools. They should be in the same building, certainly. And if the Mechanics building is taken, there could be no better site. They should have a fairly close relation in mapping out each year's work, so that every trades scholar should have the chance to add to his good, general knowledge. No man ever worked less skillfully with hands from being able to plan out his job with an intelligent, well-trained mind. And the whole community will profit by such a school. There are too many good mechanics spoiled, now, in the making of stenographers, typewriters and bookkeepers. The community will be better off with more real workers and fewer sham ones. — *Boston Advertiser, February 15, 1905.*

#### *Raising Bay State Efficiency.*

Governor Douglas, in his talk at Brockton on trade schools, hit the nail squarely on the head. More correctly, he hit several; for while talking on this specific question, he incidentally elucidated the whole industrial problem of Massachusetts.

The Governor displays his sagacity by clinging tenaciously to the doctrine that knowledge is power. He wants trade schools because they tend to increase knowledge; and he shows what, in specific cases, this means as regards the whole future of Massachusetts industry.

The burden of his talk is that there is always room at the top. The locality that can make the goods cheapest and best will always have all the business it can handle. Under economic law, many of the old industries of this State show a strong tendency to drift elsewhere. If they are to be retained, the labor of the Bay State must be more efficient than that of other localities.

Labor and capital in Massachusetts should put a peg in right there. They should fix in mind that the future strength of New England is not in her raw materials, nor in her superior accessibility to markets, but in her workmen.

We cannot raise cotton and wool here; we cannot mine iron in paying amounts; we have lost the old advantage we had in cheap lumber. But we can make brains faster than anywhere else in the world. Now brains are infinitely of more importance in industry than the price of raw materials and accessibility to markets. It is as certain as anything can be that brains, and brains alone, are to be our capital in trade in the future.

Anything, therefore, that checks the development of brain power in Massachusetts is bound to make for the impoverishment of the State. There are two things that contribute directly to this end.

The first is the specialization of industry. This is a process of evolution and cannot be stopped; but it has its dangers. To-day, no one workman makes the whole of a thing. He busies himself

with one small detail in the manufacture of a given product. He seldom does anything else, and consequently knows little if anything about the product as a whole. This tends to convert the shrewdest man into a mere machine. It weakens his power of initiative as regards affairs in general.

On the other hand, there is the unfortunate tendency of these later days to level the highly skilled workman down to the unskilled. Far from lowering the average skill of labor, the effort should be strenuously in the other direction. Ours is not a situation that will admit of mistaken theories. The moment Massachusetts takes the ground that she can be careless as regards the efficiency of her labor, she is lost industrially.

Now trade schools, if they be of the right sort, should counteract both these tendencies. If they do not, it is hard to see what can.

In the first place, they teach the student all there is to be known about the whole of the industry he has selected. It sends him out into the world to accomplish his one detail in the process of manufacture; but with a clear knowledge of how that detail is related to every other. He is a bigger and brainier man. His power of initiative is stronger, and that makes him more ambitious.

Again, trade schools make it harder for unskilled labor to keep skilled labor down to its level. The former will be far more apt to catch the contagion and rush to improve its own efficiency.

When these two ends are accomplished, we shall hear no more distressful cries about the "declining industry" of New England. — *Boston Post, March 1, 1905.*

#### *Industrial Instruction.*

Governor Douglas' plea for industrial schools is one which we trust will be heeded by our people and indorsed by the Legislature, at least so far as his recommendation goes of having a State commission appointed to consider carefully and report upon this subject. We have never been able to accept in good faith — that is, on grounds of public advantage — the protests that certain labor organizations have made against the creation of institutions of this class. We can understand opposition coming from those desirous of safeguarding what might be termed an industrial monopoly, those who wished to limit in every possible way the number of skilled workmen that the community possessed, but we have not supposed that the leaders of the labor organizations approved of this narrow line of policy.

The citizens of this Commonwealth, as well as those of other American States, find themselves to-day in a critical position. Quite two-thirds of the boys in this State now under 10 years of age must, ten or twenty years from this time, make their living by engaging in some form of manual labor. In order that they may succeed, and obtain for their services the largest possible remuneration, they should be prepared during the years that they give to instruction for what is to be their

vocation in life. Two or three generations ago the apprentice system was in common use, and the boy, after he left school, was taught in the workshops, under the immediate eye of his superiors, both the rudiments and details of the trade he had set himself to learn. At the present time no such opportunity as this is afforded, and the boy who enters a workshop or factory at the age of 14, 15, or 16 years is put in a department at work on some special machine, and while in time he may acquire aptitude in this infinitely narrow range of service, he becomes, so far as a comprehensive knowledge of the business of production he is engaged in is concerned, hardly better informed than the machine he is operating.

There can be nothing more mentally deadening than routine service of this kind when thus wholly divorced from a knowledge of what goes before and what comes after. Industrial training cannot teach to any great extent manual aptitude; that has to be acquired by practical workshop experience; but it can impart a knowledge of the various processes of manufacture, it can form the basis for an intelligent aptitude in the work engaged in, such as cannot by any possibility be acquired through the industrial methods which are now in common use. While the limitations of existing methods are strikingly shown in factory experience, they are still more plainly brought out in those trades associated with building. Either because the rules of the trades unions impose restrictions that cannot be overcome, or because of other hindrances, only a small number of American-born boys can acquire a working knowledge of these trades, and on this account we have the curious spectacle presented of having a bonus paid to foreigners who possess this knowledge to come in and do this class of work which the sons of American citizens would be only too glad to learn and do themselves if the opportunity were offered them.

Years ago the ordinary working of the law of supply and demand, and the close relationship that existed between employer and employed, made the settlement of problems such as we have just indicated a relatively easy matter. At the present time it is not an easily settled question, and our delay in finding a proper adjustment of it threatens seriously to impair our industrial efficiency. If our producers are lacking in keen aptitude for their business, we cannot hope to hold our own in the world's competition, and with a decline in this respect on our part would go the falling off of the opportunities for employment, even of a mechanical kind, that are now held out to young men and young women.

If, by means of industrial schools, the hundreds of thousands who are to be the workers and producers of Massachusetts thirty or forty years from now could be given a sound knowledge of the principles and processes of the various industries in which they are to be engaged, there is not the least doubt that they would be in a position to earn far more than can be earned by a similar number at the present day engaged in the

same lines of production. Can it be possible that the labor organizations are opposed to these larger opportunities for industrial wellbeing? Can any man who has at heart the welfare of his community believe that it would be for the general good if only a few were skilled workmen and all the rest were unskilled laborers? Would it not, on the contrary, be better if every man and woman engaged in gainful pursuit was a skilled worker, while that which constitutes the drudgery of life was, through invention, performed to a far greater degree than it is at the present time by purely mechanical instrumentalities? It is toward this end that the Governor's proposal would lead, and we certainly trust that to this effort to enlighten the community there will be no short-sighted opposition. — *Boston Herald*, March 1, 1905.

#### *Is there any Necessary Conflict between the Trades Union and the Trades School?*

This question cannot be answered in the affirmative unless our modern trades unions are trusts pure and simple, with no aim but to keep within the hands of a few men the privilege of earning a livelihood in any given trade.

We cannot believe that this is the case, much as the cause of trade unionism has been injured in some instances by the conduct of unwise leaders. Does not trade unionism at its best stand for whatever tends to elevate the condition of the trades in everything affecting the welfare of present or future workers in them? Does it not mean the establishment of sound traditions for the guidance of future workers and a steady fight for whatever tends toward higher standards of workmanship and living? If this is a correct (though ideal) definition of unionism, no one can deny that the establishment of technical schools will be of the utmost value to the whole community.

Massachusetts, for her own protection, needs schools in which all children shall learn the sound rudiments of some means of livelihood, along with the usual "rudimentary" lessons. Young people would thus come to the productive age with a greater respect for manual work and an intelligent appreciation of the skill and knowledge needed to enter any of the finer crafts upon which Massachusetts must in the future depend. If cheap goods are to be made nearer the source of supply we must train our rising generations for those crafts, the production of which represent, in their cost, a high percentage of skilled labor and a small percentage of materials.

We in Massachusetts must welcome every possible advantage in the way of educational facilities which will enable us to profit by the transition in our industries which is now commencing. The cheaper products which call for the minimum of intelligent workmanship must be made elsewhere. By wise foresight we must be prepared to replace such lost industries with others requiring the class of alert, trained intelligent workers, which it is our immediate business to educate for this inevitable demand. . . .

This is what those interested in the present plans for technical education are striving to accomplish. The fact that many able unionists are among the leaders in the movement goes to show that an affirmative answer to your question is impossible. — *Frederic Allen Whiting.*

There is no necessary conflict between trade schools as such, conducted by the State, and trade unions. Unionism has ever been the foremost advocate of the fullest and freest opportunities for all to acquire an education. The trade school, adhering to its true principles, work and objects, is in the interest of workers, employers, and industries. The principle underlying the trade school and the opportunities and advantages it places within the reach of the individual are the principles, opportunities and advantages of education, and inseparable from unionism. The State or public trade school solves for the individual the problem of how to acquire a technical knowledge of, and practical efficiency in, any chosen trade or industrial pursuit for a livelihood.

The trade school must be confined to its proper sphere, and protected against the influence of, and exploitation by, evil, political, and selfish business interests. While offering manifestly superior opportunities and advantages to the employer and the vast number who yearly enter upon the task of earning a livelihood, there are no discernible evils, or disadvantages, from which the employer would suffer through the trade school. Unhappily, such is not the case with the workers employed in the trades to be taught by the trade schools.

The trade school should raise the standard of general industrial efficiency, thereby enabling a more economical operation of our industries, and consequently a higher standard of wages and conditions of labor. To the extent that the trade school becomes the mere instrumentality by which wages and workers are exploited by the employer, the trade school becomes an industrial leaven, rather than an industrial benefit. If the economic benefits of the trade school are, because of his position of vantage, to be wholly absorbed by the employer the industrial welfare of the worker will be menaced. Because of the opportunities the trade school offers the employer disposed to take advantage of them to attack the wage workers and defeat the just aspirations of unionism, a necessary conflict of interests between employer and trade unions seems inevitable.

If organized labor successfully opposes the establishment of State or public trade schools the logical result will be the trade school conducted by private enterprise, for the trade school is inevitable! That the trade school will solve some industrial problems, and abolish some industrial evils and introduce new problems and evils is certain, but organized labor must apply itself to preventing the introduction of evils and solving the problems created by trade school education in the interests of the workers. As the trade school solves the problem of learning a trade by

which to earn a livelihood, so does the trade union solve the problem of how to protect and promote that livelihood.

The trade union is the next logical step of the graduate of the trade school. Here the work of the trade union begins. It must direct its power, influence and energy to safeguard the trade school, the workers' school, from the evil designs of employers, and unionize the graduates.

It cannot hope to successfully maintain a high standard of wages and conditions by denying to rising generations of workers the opportunities to fit themselves to earn a livelihood. A high standard of wages and conditions of employment must be maintained through organization of the workers. That standard will be determined by the extent the workers absorb unionism.

The work and object of the trade school are, in reality, correlated with the work and objects of the trade union. There are no inherent evils connected with the trade school. Doubtless the employer will take advantage of every opportunity to pervert the trade school for his own ends, but this perversion must be prevented by unionizing the students and not by denying or destroying their educational opportunities.

Organized labor views with suspicion the sincerity of the argument of the employer, that trade schools are necessary to the retention and extension of our foreign markets, and a sufficiency of skilled help to successfully operate our industries at all times is lacking. This suspicion is natural and justified in view of the increased opportunities which an increasing surplus of skilled workers turned out yearly by the trade schools would give to the employers to attack wages and impose worse conditions of employment.

The problems growing out of trade schools must be sensibly met by trade unions. Educate the workers outside and inside the trade school to the opportunities, advantages and necessity of unionism as a protective and promotive force operating in the interests of the workers. Let there be trade schools established throughout the land. Make them trade union proteges, and safeguard them against the evil designs of the unfairly disposed employer, and labor has nothing to fear from trade schools. — *C. L. Baine.*

In answer to your question, is there any necessary conflict between "the industrial school and the trade union," I should say that in my opinion there is none. The need of trade schools in the textile industry, for instance, was perhaps never better exemplified than at the present time.

Fine textile fabrics to the amount of \$50,000,000 were imported into this country from Europe during the year 1904. These goods were generally of superior quality. If our operatives in this country had the necessary textile education it is fair to assume that a great quantity of those goods would be manufactured here. But our people to a great extent lack the skill and training necessary to produce the superior article.

In this country, the cotton market of the world one may say, and where the raw material is so



convenient, this condition of things should not obtain. If the trade school is to other crafts what the textile school is to the textile industry, it should be of great benefit to them.

As regards the relation of industrial education to the textile union, in my opinion the skilled workman makes a good trade unionist, more so than the unskilled one. In England and Germany, countries where industrial schools are well established, and where trade organizations are also strong, we do not hear that their interests conflict in any way. In England, the mule-spinners' union, one of the strongest organizations in that country, subject their secretary to a most rigid examination as to a technical knowledge of their craft before allowing him to take office, and also to have a good practical experience at his trade.

The additional learning gained through a good technical education, and which in a great many cases cannot be acquired save through an industrial school, serves a workman in good stead, and is valuable not only to himself, but to his employer and the whole community, and without detracting in any way from those qualities which make him a good trade unionist.—*Thomas Taylor*. — *Boston Sunday Globe*, March 12, 1905.

#### *Girls' Industrial Schools.*

The steady drift of women into the industries no longer evokes jeremiads from moralists and theorists.

In the work of meeting these conditions intelligently and humanely we may get many valuable lessons from the industrial schools of Germany, described in a recent report by Mr. Meyer, the United States deputy consul at Chemnitz. To meet the demand for opportunities of employment for unmarried women in Germany there developed in the early days of 1860 private commercial schools at Stuttgart, Munich, Leipzig, Berlin, and elsewhere, and these were soon followed by the founding of still broader industrial schools, known as the *Lette-Verein*, in which opportunities are given for the study of different trades adapted to women, and in which are special schools of photography.

Among the trades taught are machine sewing, tailoring, linen sewing, millinery, washing, ironing, cooking, nursing, serving, domestic economy, art, embroidery and ornamental drawing.

The success of the *Lette-Verein* led to the foundation of many other organizations in behalf of the laboring women of Germany.

Saxony, the greatest seat of German industry, employing the largest percentage of women in proportion to population, had 24 special trade schools, and 14 general industrial schools for girls in 1889.

In addition to the industrial schools and quite different in character are the schools of domestic science, in which young women are taught cooking and other duties pertaining to the home. These schools were founded to check the tremendous tide of young women toward the work shops

and factories, and their remarkably rapid growth attests their success and value.

The value and effectiveness of these schools in promoting the industrial welfare of German women in the improvement of the home have been recognized in generous increase of government subsidies and in liberal endowments from private sources.—*Boston Post*, December 30, 1904.

#### *Industrial Education in the Public Schools.*

In every industry two fundamental elements must be considered, the human and the non-human, the workman on the one hand and the material upon which his energies are exerted, on the other. Progress and increased efficiency may result from the improvement of methods and treatment employed in dealing with either factor; but the highest efficiency can only be reached when approximately equal progress is made in both departments. Improvements in the handling and treatment of the raw materials and the partially or completely finished product ought to be accompanied by a similar increase in the skill and efficiency of the workmen. Labor as well as material should be the object of careful consideration and preparation. If this condition does not obtain, the output of our shops and factories is reduced both in quality and quantity below what it should be. All can, I believe, accept this proposition, no matter what theory of wages may be accepted by different individuals.

Improved processes of manufacture, the reduction of costs, the elimination of waste, and better means of transportation have reduced the mechanical and material side of industry to a scientific basis. Every step from the first displacement of the raw material until the finished product is in the hands of the consumer is carefully calculated and worked out in almost mathematical exactness in all of our well-organized industries. Although this side of industrial operations is so well planned and executed, the preparation and treatment of the human factor which works upon these materials in the different stages of manufacture and exchange are far from satisfactory. The same energy and foresight have not been applied to the labor side of the problem. This has been left to agencies outside the factory. Now, however, it is being generally recognized that this phase of the industrial problem must be granted careful consideration. The most important problems at the present time which the manufacturers of this country must solve are those relating to the improvements and preparation of workers rather than of machines and processes.

*Skilled and Unskilled Labor.* There are two phases of this question, the education and training of future workers and the proper treatment and care of present workers. It is my purpose to consider only the first phase. What are the needs of our industries? What kind of training should be given the young men who are to become the skilled and unskilled workers of the



next generation? What is the appropriate and most efficient educational agency for this purpose? A trained, resourceful and adaptable rank and file are as essential to the future prosperity of manufacture and commerce as well-educated and well-equipped superintendents and engineers. The growth of the factory system and the increasing use of a minute division of labor have forced the old forms of apprenticeship to the wall. It is generally acknowledged that there is at present no adequate apprenticeship system in general operation in this country. Opportunity for a young man to learn a trade, or to come in contact with materials and machines, has been reduced to a minimum in this age of crowded urban centres and large factories.

Neither the home nor the shop now offer adequate provision for the training of the youth who is to be the manual worker of the future. This important and urgent duty must devolve upon the school. The public school system of this country is the one great institution which is able successfully to take up the work of industrial education. The school of the future ought to prepare the student for manual as well as for mental work; it should stand ready to give special as well as general training. The community is benefited by improvement in industry, and should be willing to pay for the training which will bring about such improvement. Schools are cheaper than court houses, jails, reformatories, and associated charities. I plead not only for manual training and industrial education in the ward and high schools, similar to that now maintained in many of our progressive cities, but also for night and half-day schools for boys and girls who are obliged to earn their own living. Education and daily work shall be brought close together. Boys should have an opportunity to study arithmetic, geometry, English, applied mechanics, mechanical drawing, elementary physics and chemistry and shop work. These studies are necessary if we are to maintain a skilful, alert, progressive class of workers in the shops, factories, stores, and offices of this country. The small percentage of boys who reach our high schools is a warning to us that something radically different from our present educational methods should be undertaken. The importance of domestic science for the girls must not be overlooked.

At present there are springing up all over our land private, correspondence, and Young Men's Christian Association schools, which are endeavoring more or less successfully and faithfully to offer industrial, trade, scientific and commercial education to ambitious workers in shop, store, office, or on the farm. Many of these are efficient and do a good work; but on the other hand many are merely money-making schemes whose promises are greater than their fulfillment. The cost of tuition in many private schools is considerable, and the work is usually not well systematized or organized. The training given in many night schools is fragmentary and does very little to aid the student. Systematic, well-organized, and

well-co-ordinated courses are needed. However well the private night school and correspondence schools may have answered the purpose in isolated cases, they are not the proper institutions permanently to provide for the training of the great bodies of young workers scattered all over this land. It is the public, not the private, school which must be looked to for co-operation in the matter of industrial education.

Much of the needed equipment is available. At present our public school buildings are only used about seven hours per day, five days per week, and thirty-eight weeks per year. School is now in session at precisely the time of day when our young workers must be at work. Before the shop closes, the school doors swing shut; with few exceptions no provision is made for this important and numerous class of young people. However, here is an expensive plant which lies idle during the time when these young workers could use it. The schools of the future should offer half-day and night courses for workingmen and workingwomen. While the training given should be broadening, it must at the same time be practical and immediately helpful. It should aid the youthful worker in the everyday routine of his life. Shop work is necessarily narrowing. The worker is only a single link in a great industrial chain. The school ought to show the value of his work and its connection with the complete industrial operation of which it is a minute portion.

No curriculum prepared solely by a teacher, or by an employer or by an employee, will answer the requirement. The one chosen by the average teacher will be too broad, and will incline too far toward the purely cultural studies, omitting many of the needed practical lessons. Education and work will be separated instead of being drawn closely together. The employer will aim at turning out an efficient but narrow worker. He will look at the product which the man is to turn out, rather than to the man himself. The worker rarely has a broad vision. He would look only to the immediate future, and would include only those subjects which bear directly and clearly upon the work which he is now doing or expects to do in the near future. The best curriculum for the industrial schools will, therefore, be a compromise among the three. Local conditions should, of course, have much weight. Education ought to adapt itself to the conditions existing in each country and community. For example, in a town where textile work is a leading occupation, training should be given which will be of concrete and immediate value to the youth who is to be engaged in that industry. Where iron and steel plants abound special stress ought to be laid upon the elements of this industry, the chemistry of iron and steel, etc. Further, the character and nationality of the inhabitants should have due weight in determining the methods used and the kind of work given.

*From Manufacturers and Unions.* The question of industrial and trade education is extremely important. The initiative in the work must come,

I believe, from associations of manufacturers and from labor unions, rather than from educators. Success can best be obtained when the employer and the employee work in harmony. Whatever differences of opinion may exist in regard to other topics, upon this question surely both parties must agree. Manufacturers should require their apprentices and young workers to take certain work in the schools which may be organized for that purpose. The school curriculum and the organization of the public school system reflect the needs and demands made upon it by the commercial and industrial, as well as the professional, world. Organization and persistent agitation can bring about the general incorporation of the important features of industrial education into our public school system. Your great Manufacturers' Association is well adapted and prepared to take the lead in such a movement. To take an active part in the movement for properly training the great heterogeneous mass of young people who are now growing into manhood and womanhood is worthy of our most earnest endeavors. Industrial education for the boys and domestic science for the girls are two features which must find a place in the curriculum of our public schools, if American commercial and industrial supremacy is to be maintained. — *Professor Frank T. Carleton, in American Industries, New York, December 1, 1904.*

#### *Carnegie Trade School.*

The trade school department of the Carnegie Technical Schools of Pittsburg will be the initial department to be opened the latter part of next October. This decision has been reached by Director Arthur A. Hammerschlag and members of the technical schools committee, after several conferences with the architects for the new schools. From four to six buildings will be erected at once for this department, including shops, class rooms and a temporary administration building.

According to the architectural program the trade school department is classed as a school for apprentices and journeymen and is listed as group III. For the first year only fundamental subjects will be taught to day students in the schools. At the end of the first year it will be ascertained just which departments of the new schools are most necessary and these will be built as fast as there is demand for them.

The architects are now at work arranging the plans for the first group of buildings for the trade school. It is expected that a rough outline will be completed the latter part of next week, and then the architects will endeavor to complete the plans as rapidly as possible. Work will be started on the building before the entire plans have been finished, and the drawings will be made for some buildings while the contractors are erecting others.

The trade school of the Carnegie Technical Schools will be modeled somewhat, it is said, after those of the New York Trade School. Of course all the buildings will be on a grander and more elaborate scale and the plans will be constructed

so that additions may be made to any of the structures, if they are desired, at any time.

Starting, the trade school department first of all will be a benefit to hundreds of Pittsburg students, who contemplate entering the new schools after they have been opened. Instruction in nearly every trade known in this section will be given in the initial section of the schools, and the most competent faculty that can possibly be gotten together will be selected for the department.

As has been stated before it is likely that the new schools will be opened to the public next Founder's Day. At that time the greatest celebration in connection with the institute will be planned.

The President of the United States and several members of his cabinet will likely be here. Men and women of international reputations will be present at the exercises, and it is said that an entire week will be given up for all the exercises. The regular Founder's Day exercises will occupy a day. The opening of the technical schools will likely consume another. There will also be banquets and entertainments and, all told, it will probably be one of the most important weeks in the history of Pittsburg. — *National Labor Tribune, Pittsburg, Penn., November 10, 1904.*

#### *The Trades School.*

The trades school is a very desirable institution. Industrial education will prove a benefit to any boy or girl fitted to make use of it and in some respects will prove of advantage to all scholars. But as to future use, what can the children do with their industrial education? The unions do not like industrial schools. They desire to limit the number of apprentices at any trade that is "organized." They would curtail the supply of labor to make sure that there shall always be a sufficient demand. Would the introduction of trade schools, valuable as they might be, make "scabs" of the children thus taught, or would it arouse the hostility of the trade unions against the educational system? — *Montpelier Argus.*

The Argus's idea of unionism is distorted. Trade unions favor industrial teaching if it is conducted with a view to making first-class mechanics. Numerous unions either conduct or indorse trade schools of their craft. Notably, the International Typographical indorses technical schools in Washington and Chicago, and the Carpenters and Joiners conduct numerous schools, one in Reading, Pa., especially being conspicuous for its work in producing first-class mechanics.

What the unions do object to is class-taxation for the support of trade schools either as an adjunct of the public school system or in prisons and reformatories. They do not think it right that they alone should be taxed to support schools for learners in their craft, and yet when the products of these schools are placed upon the market at a lower price than the prevailing rate of wages in the craft will warrant, and they usually are so placed, it is an indirect tax upon the workers in that craft. All that they ask is that the cost of maintenance be as equally distributed as that of any other branch of the public educational

system, and no class favoritism be shown in taxation.

Trade unions do seek to restrict the number of apprentices in a trade because experience has taught the members that an overplus of apprentices lowers the standard of work and wages, and where apprentices exceed a certain per cent of the employees in a craft, only a few of them ever reach a degree of perfection in their work. The remainder, as they advance in age and desire more wages, are turned adrift as incompetent, to make room for more apprentices and fill the ranks of the "scabs," men generally so unproficient in their calling as to be unable to gain membership in a union. Where the number of apprentices is limited each gets a show and each can become a proficient workman because he has the opportunity for more and better instruction and can gain opportunities for advancement and independent thought of his work, which only comes to the brightest and more self-reliant where numerous apprentices are employed. To the employer it may be more profitable to employ a lot of boys, to be turned adrift with half their trade as they approach manhood, but labor unions cannot believe that it is profitable to society to have these half-finished journeymen drifting about, a drag to themselves and a menace to those who would keep up the standard of living and wages.

In every craft there is room for skilled and expert mechanics, but there is no room anywhere for the slouch and half-taught craftsman save as a club to be held over the expert workers to keep wages down. The skilled workman is practically always sure of a job, and it is those who are half taught who are to be found in the army of the unemployed, ready to take their fellow's job in case of strike, glad to get the job because that is the only kind that they can hold. That they are so is not their fault, but the fault of the system of child labor and excessive apprenticeship, where only the brightest and readiest witted get the opportunities. Personally we have marked instances in the printers' craft where boys turned out of a "kindergarten" shop after serving four years, with no technical knowledge of the trade save in some one line like press-feeding, padding, or the like, have been picked up by some friend and given a show to learn their trade over again, and have become proficient printers, while others turned adrift from the same "apprentice factory," with no such helping hand extended to them, have gone on until they have become miserable apologies for men, all because of the avarice of the man who wanted to employ all the apprentices he desired. — *Vermont Union Signal, Rutland, Vermont, June 4, 1904.*

#### *Wharton School of Finance and Commerce.*

Mr. Joseph Wharton some years since gave to the University of Pennsylvania a fund for the establishment of a Wharton School of Finance and Commerce. This school has had a season of gradual growth, and has not yet come to the recognition which the importance of its field

would lead us to expect. But that those who are behind it believe that the movement is in the right direction is evidenced by an additional donation to the university by Mr. Wharton which raises the endowment fund to \$500,000. With this larger fund the school sets off upon a distinctly new era. A large number of specialized business courses are to be offered at the opening of the college on September 30, 1904. With a view of fitting young men for their prospective careers, there are courses now open in industrial management showing the method of collecting and marketing raw material, manufacturing and merchandising, insurance and railway transportation, the practice and principles of rate making, and a few of the physical and financial characteristics of the leading railway systems of the United States. They give a view of the local and business relations between shipper and carrier. The course includes the study of methods of promoting, capitalizing and administering business corporations and public finances, a study of taxation and of the activities of public bodies in borrowing and in financial administration.

We refer to the Wharton course in such detail only because it is a fair example. Among the various efforts making in this direction are the schools of commerce, finance and administration at Dartmouth College, New York University, Wisconsin University, Chicago University, University of Missouri and University of California.

The education of men for business has long been a mooted question. There has been a disposition to consider the business man and the educated man as of distinctly different types, so that the attainments of the one do not make for the fitness of the other. In part the advocates of the extreme positions of no education on the one hand and elaborate special education for business on the other have united upon the common ground of recognizing the disciplinary advantage of an elaborate liberal education for those who are to enter into the administration of affairs. This concession on the part of the business man has not been made without much difficulty. In any practical case of a young man entering upon life so much depends upon the individual that it is not safe to go far into generalizations.

It is idle to maintain at this late day that education does not have its place in every calling of life. The various positions taken with regard to business education will differ in respect to the degree of education which is thought necessary and practical. The best solution comes by the uniting of the practical and the theoretical, the apprenticeship and the instruction course, the routine and philosophy of the routine. In many cases this combination is found to be most effective where the boy has been first placed in business for a period of not less than two years, so that he has learned something of practical work and accustomed himself to its drudgery. The wider outlook of the school will then be romantic to him in its reaches and rich in its practical explanation of the things with which he has al-



ready had familiar contact. If such a theoretically perfect combination of the apprenticeship and the instruction course is possible, the next best thing is the liberal education alone, its wider outlooks in the last year being made to converge upon that field of work to which the man's inclinations tend.

Circumstances as well as talent largely control the drift of men's lives towards that place where they come to do their life's work. These circumstances are fortuitous more often than prearranged or foreseen. The large element of chance in circumstances, united with caprice in humor, makes it impossible for the man to determine in advance those things for which he would acquire fitness. This fact largely modifies the advantage of a highly specialized training. But the other fact that anything well learned contributes to a facility in other things most indirectly related very largely compensates for the direct inapplicability of much that is learned. In general it is fairly safe to say that the specific mechanical facility for any work must be acquired in the performance of the work itself, and cannot be acquired in any school satisfactorily. Hence the reason why the practical man is disposed to look with some distrust upon too much specialization in the school.

There is another side to this question which should not be ignored. If we grant that time spent in school work is well applied towards ultimate efficiency, then it must be made to count for credit to the man who has spent his time in such preparation when he comes to compete with the man who has not spent any time in such way. The things that he has learned are largely beyond the range of the work to which he will be immediately assigned, and for the first years of advancement this will continue to be the case. If this advance is held severely along the lines of those who did not have this larger ultimate fitness he will be placed at a serious disadvantage.

The practical result of the situation which frequently prevails is that such men do not enter railroad service. It is not just to say that they are debarred by their own dislike for the drudgery in "working up." They have seriously and deliberately canvassed their course in life, and from their habit of a wider outlook their tendency will be to make a selection of that work which holds out a definite promise within a reasonable time. It is but just that they should claim that compensation and position in a working organization to which they are competitively entitled when all measures have been applied. It is a serious charge against railway administration when a man of practical affairs and such eminence in his calling as President W. H. Baldwin accounts for the small representation of college men in railway employ by the fact that the railway manager had not as yet arranged a plan for injecting the college man into the organization. — *Public Policy, Chicago, Illinois, November 10, 1904.*

#### *Bringing the School to the Man.*

It is estimated that more than 90 per cent of the people in the United States have received or are

receiving education reaching no higher than the primary or grammar schools. Out of every 1,000 men, women and children now attending schools 948 are in primary and grammar grades, 39 in high and preparatory schools and only 13 in colleges, normal and technical schools. The struggle for existence is so keen that the great majority of men are forced to enter their callings without any special preparation, and once in, school days are over. The expense in time and money of attending a technical school is so great that only a favored or unusually determined few are ever enrolled in such institutions. Meanwhile the marvelous development and increasing intricacy of industrial life call for men of trained minds as well as skilled hands, and the few men thus equipped in each establishment forge ahead to positions of responsibility, while the rank and file are machine tenders or simply "hands."

The small enrolment in technical schools shows how hard it is to bring the man to the school. But a new force is at work in which the school is brought to the man. Nearly 1,000,000 men and women have been or are now enrolled as students in the technical correspondence schools of the country, and to each one is given the sort of instruction he requires for his advancement in his daily labor without interruption to his work. Such men study during their evening hours with a definite purpose in view. They learn more about the theory and practice of their work that they may earn more. In doing this they become possessed of the secret of success — namely, that their futures lie, not with unions or a socialistic government, but with themselves. The habits of self development, the new impulse of looking within for strength and help in time of perplexity and need, and the consciousness of an ability to bring a trained mind to the aid of trained hands, are developing a new race of engineers and mechanics whose influence for good is almost incalculable.

Up to the present time these home study courses in practical work are carried on only by private institutions or in connection with two or three great colleges; but the benefits are so great to both employer and employed that employers' associations in each trade or industry should give earnest consideration to some plan of offering to every employee home instruction supplemented by shop practice. Better still would be the results if the trades unions could be brought to see that the greatest good they could do to their members would be their education along practical lines — practical courses in instruction leading up to diplomas which would advance their holders to higher and higher grades on the union rosters and to better pay in the shops. A union card backed by such a system would be a *sesame* to the shop of most wide awake employers, and the competitive demand for men of the higher grades would insure higher wages for good men than the unions will ever be able to force on employers by present methods. — *The Iron Age, New York, February 2, 1905.*



## Manual Training Schools.

### *Law Relating to Manual Training Schools in Massachusetts.*

Every city and town containing 20,000 inhabitants or more shall maintain the teaching of manual training as part of both its elementary and its high school system. [Chap. 42, § 9, Revised Laws, 1902.]

### *Schools of Industry.*

Schools of industry and not schools of knowledge will save the nation from anarchy.

The larger earning power goes with the larger schooling. The larger number must be taught how to earn a living.

While poverty of the parents or need of the wages causes the withdrawal of many from the common schools, there are thousands who withdraw because of fault with, or lack of interest in, the course of study.

Prof. Woodward of St. Louis, treating of this subject, says "that the prime causes for abnormal withdrawals are: First, a lack of interest on the part of the pupils; and secondly, on the part of parents, a dissatisfaction that we do not offer instruction of a more practical character." These pupils become tired of the work they have in hand, and they see in the grades above them no sufficiently attractive features to invite them. They are conscious of growing powers, passions and tastes which the school does not recognize.

They find the restraints of the schoolroom very irksome. They long to grasp things with their own hands; they burn to test the strength of materials and the magnitude of forces; to match their cunning with the cunning of nature and practical men. This applies to girls as well as boys. Such boys and girls may be saved to the school, the community and themselves by manual training and domestic science and art in the school curriculum, and by the offer of a high school training suited to their tastes, and situated conveniently near.

President Stanley Hall remarked in one of his lectures that what was needed was schools that did not unfit for life.

Mary Eileen Ahern, editor, Public Library: It is a well established fact that 75 per cent of those who enter the primary grade of the public schools leave before the age of 13.

It is equally true that not 10 per cent of those who enter the public schools finish the prescribed course of instruction for entering high school, so that every year there is going out into what is termed life a stream of boys and girls who cannot be said to be even acquainted with the powers of their own mind.

The child of the masses needs to be instructed along lines that will be agreeable and instructive and conform to the needs of the wageworker. The goal of the child of the toiler is the workshop. The school should have a curriculum with that end in view for most of its scholars. This need not deprive those able and desirous of a high

school and college course from taking the necessary studies. But for a short timer at school there should be a radical change in the training now in vogue. — *Mellen's Magazine*, Boston, January, 1905.

### *Manual Training High Schools.*

We publish in this issue a "Report on Manual Training High Schools" made to the Business Men's Club of Cincinnati by a "Central Organization of the Commercial Bodies and Citizens" of that city.

The subject of manual training is of universal interest. If the standard of ability of American workmen is to be maintained or raised boys and girls of this country must have opportunity to acquire educated hands and brains. A good English education, combined with the special education of hands and brains necessary to enable a boy or girl to earn a living in a self-selected vocation, and an intelligent understanding of the civic duties of good citizenship, appears to us to be the ideal training every youth should receive from the public. No better investment can be made by taxpayers than to give to every youth opportunity to acquire an education such as is here contemplated. In such education every industrial, commercial and financial interest will be well safeguarded, and the welfare of society and of the State will be conserved.

When persons so educated enter the industrial army their intelligence will be a powerful aid in raising organized labor to a higher level of efficiency and influence which all of its well-wishers desire to see it occupy. When persons so educated enter social life the social expenditure on account of their education will be returned an hundredfold by the minimizing of social wastes by reason of their superior intelligence. Such persons will have power to resist the temptations of vices that destroy good character and thrift. When persons so educated enter political life the morale of party politics will be improved, honesty will displace graft, efficiency will displace time-serving mediocrity, and again, in these ways, the public will be repaid the cost of such education an hundredfold.

In this connection we restate an aphorism that may be accepted as a maxim: *Money expended for helpful education is put to the highest economic use.*

We sincerely hope that Cincinnati and every city, town and village in Ohio, and in the whole country, will provide an opportunity for every boy and girl to acquire the kind of education they need to fit them for a career of highest usefulness. — *Public Policy*, Chicago, December 3, 1904.

### *Free Public Manual Training and Commercial High Schools in Ohio.*

Mr. President and Gentlemen:

To properly answer the question whether free public manual training and commercial high schools should be maintained as a part of the

school system of at least Ohio city school districts, involves a discussion of the nature and objects of education. The human activities embrace direct and indirect self-preservation, family duties, civic obligations and recreation.

*The Object of Education.* The object of education is to fit mankind to properly perform the activities of life by imparting useful information and disciplining the faculties. Some knowledge of all subjects is so valuable that mere exhaustive knowledge of a few is unwise, and the great problem is to determine the order in which educational topics should be pursued, and the amount of time to be devoted to each. Its solution depends upon a correct understanding of their relative importance, not of their abstract value. The shortness of school life is too often ignored by the theoretical in making inductions. As direct self-preservation is necessary to human existence, a high degree of importance should be given to those branches of education which teach how to preserve life and health. This was recognized by the act of April 13, 1892 (98 Ohio Laws, 276; Revised Statute, sec. 4020-17) requiring physical culture to be taught in public schools of all large cities. Because all must be fed, housed and clothed, education in those sciences which underlie the arts pertaining to the production and distribution of the necessities of life is relatively next in importance.

Schools are intended to develop native talents and to so direct them as to help the individual to human happiness. Courses of study should be sufficient in number to fit the various aptitudes of pupils, and thus only can schools be made useful and bring the greatest good to the greatest number.

*Does the Course of Study in High Schools Fit the Needs of the People?* The question squarely presents itself, whether the courses of study in high schools of this State other than of Toledo and Cleveland are sufficiently numerous to fit the diversified needs of the people. It is not a question of changing the course of study now in use, but of adding others better fitting the wants of a majority of our people. For centuries attention has been given to the ornamental, to the exclusion of the useful, educational topics being taken up in the inverse order of their importance, and while the ornamental should be taught, it should be subordinated to subjects of practical value. In the public high schools of all Ohio cities, except Toledo and Cleveland, subjects pertaining to direct and indirect self-preservation occupy inferior positions.

*Development of Manual Training Schools.* As the result of the present courses of study, our young men and women, whose educational careers end with the high school, are school taught in the ornamental and conventional, and are left to mere self-education in the necessary and practical. The question will naturally be asked, how can a boy or girl be given a liberal education which will fit him or her for the realities of life without turning our institutions of learning into mere trade schools? This has been answered by the

establishment of free public manual training and commercial high schools. Manual training schools have not grown in a day. Trade schools were first established in Russia more than a century ago, and then spread to Belgium and France and finally throughout Europe. In 1868 a course of manual training in the sense in which it is now understood was introduced in the Imperial Technical School at Moscow by Victor Della-Vos. Their importance as proper subjects of public support was first recognized in America by Baltimore, which city, in 1883, established the first public manual training high school, and since then they have been established in twenty-three out of twenty-five leading cities of America.

*Course of Study in Manual Training Schools.* It has been a popular belief that a manual training school was a mere trade school for the education of tradesmen. Manual training high schools, as now conducted, are not so intended, but are to give young men and young women liberal educations and a knowledge of the sciences underlying the industrial arts. The only difference between the course of instruction in our high schools and in the manual training high school is that a relatively greater importance is given to practical subjects than to those which are merely conventional. This is very readily seen from the course of studies usually pursued in a manual training high school, which includes music, elocution, physical culture, English, rhetoric, literature, history, civil government, surveying, political economy, language, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, physiology, zoology, meteorology, mineralogy, geology, botany, physics, chemistry, electricity, laboratory work, and free hand, mechanical and illustrative drawing, with special reference to shop work. To these are added actual shop work, which includes joinery, wood carving, wood turning, molding, patternmaking, forging, ornamental and useful wrought iron work, use of machine tools, clipping, filing, turning, drilling, planing, milling, and construction of machinery.

In some manual training high schools, such as those of Kansas City, girls may elect to take sewing, millinery, dressmaking, cooking, domestic economy, household economy, arithmetic, book-keeping, typewriting and stenography in place of shop work; and in Indianapolis, sewing, cooking, hygiene and home nursing. While these optional courses of instruction for girls in manual training high schools are novel, their wisdom has been justified. In the city of Indianapolis for the present year, 1904-1905, there are enrolled 1,470 pupils in the manual training high school, of which number 806 are boys and 664 are girls.

*Manual Training Schools in Ohio and Massachusetts.* The city of Toledo has for years maintained a manual training high school, under the name of the University of Toledo. The five high schools in the city of Cleveland maintain courses of instruction in manual training.

For ten years Massachusetts has taken the most advanced step in this matter, and on June 14, 1894, that State enacted a statute entitled: "An

Act to provide for manual training in cities of more than twenty thousand inhabitants." It is a brief enactment of but one section and provides that: "After the first day of September, in the year eighteen hundred and ninety-five, every city of twenty thousand or more inhabitants shall maintain as part of its high school system the teaching of manual training. The course to be pursued in said institution shall be subject to the State Board of Education."

*Action of Business Men's Club of Cincinnati Favoring Manual Training Schools.* The Business Men's Club of Cincinnati, at its annual meeting November 8, 1904, unanimously passed a resolution requesting the Ohio State Board of Commerce to take up for consideration the enactment of a statute making a course in manual training compulsory in every high school district in Ohio. This board did, on January 7, 1905, pass a resolution on the importance of this subject.

*Need of Manual Training Schools in Ohio.* Ohio is essentially a manufacturing State and ought to encourage industrial and commercial education. According to the report just submitted by Hon. M. D. Ratchford, State Labor Commissioner, three hundred and forty-three thousand eight hundred and fifty-nine (343,859) inhabitants of Ohio are engaged in manufacturing pursuits. There are seven thousand nine hundred and sixty-one (7,961) manufactories in the State. The capital invested amounts to \$385,895,325. The annual payrolls amount to \$206,329,472. Yet to-day there are but six high schools in all Ohio in which any attention is paid to industrial and commercial education, and these six schools are located in the two cities of Toledo and Cleveland, one in Toledo and five in Cleveland.

By the act of April 9, 1902 (95 Ohio Laws, 115 Section 4007-2) a high school is defined, and among other subjects spoken of as permissible for instruction are "commercial and industrial branches." By the same statute (Section 4007-4) high schools are divided into three grades. A high school of the first grade is one having not less than a four-year course of instruction, of not less than thirty-two weeks each, in which not less than sixteen courses shall be required for graduation. A high school of the third grade is one having not less than a two-year course of instruction of not less than twenty-eight weeks each, in which not less than eight courses shall be required for graduation.

According to the State School Report for the year ending August 31, 1903, there are eight hundred and forty-five (845) high schools in Ohio. These are divided as follows: Two hundred and thirty-nine (239) first-grade high schools; two hundred and fifty-five (255) second-grade high schools and three hundred and fifty-one (351) third-grade high schools. By the act of April 25, 1904 (97 Ohio Laws, p. 335, section 3886), it is provided that "each incorporated city, now existing or hereafter created, together with the territory attached to it for school purposes, and excluding the territory within its corporate limits detached

for school purposes, shall constitute a city school district."

*Only Two out of Seventy-one City School Districts Attempt to Give Industrial and Commercial Instruction.* As there are seventy-one municipalities in Ohio which constitute cities under the Ohio Municipal Code, it follows that there are seventy-one city school districts in the State of Ohio. Of these seventy-one city school districts but two make any attempt at giving industrial and commercial instruction. Ohio should follow the lead set by Massachusetts fully ten years ago and require either all city school districts or all high schools of the first grade to maintain courses in commercial and industrial instruction.

*The Industrial and Commercial Supremacy of the United States Demands a National Movement for Mandatory Commercial and Industrial Instruction in City High Schools.* The marvelous commercial strides of Germany are, in no small measure, due to her system of technical education.

This is a great commercial age and modern methods of business are daily requiring greater technical skill on the part of both employer and employee. In order to maintain and advance the commercial supremacy of the United States, the Ohio State Board of Commerce ought seriously to consider the question of inaugurating a great national movement for making it mandatory that every high school in every municipality in the United States of over five thousand inhabitants provide a course in commercial and industrial instruction. [When Mr. James concluded his address the following resolution and bill was submitted to the board for its approval.]

*Mandatory Commercial and Industrial Instruction in all City High Schools Indorsed by the Ohio State Board of Commerce.* "Be it resolved by the Ohio State Board of Commerce, at its annual meeting held this sixteenth day of December, 1904, that it is the sense of this board that commercial and industrial instruction be made mandatory in high schools of all city school districts; that the president of this board appoint a committee of five to present a bill to the General Assembly of Ohio for that purpose; that this board hereby indorses a bill substantially as follows:

*A Bill to Make Courses of Commercial and Industrial Instruction Mandatory in the High Schools of all City School Districts.* "Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio, that section 4007-2 of the Revised Statutes of Ohio, as enacted April 9, 1902 (95 Ohio Laws, 115), be supplemented with the following sectional number, to wit:

*Section 4007-2a.* That on and after the first day of September, nineteen hundred and seven (1907) the boards of education of city school districts shall provide high school courses of instruction in commercial and industrial branches." [The above resolution and bill were adopted without a dissenting vote.] — *Address by Francis B. James before the Ohio State Board of Commerce.*



*Practical Education for Practical Business.*

There are two kinds of education from the standpoint of the railroad manager which he can turn to practical use. The first is the education of classes of employees in the arts of their craft. He puts on a traveling fireman to instruct the firemen how to economize in the use of coal. He puts on an inspector of lubricating to instruct the car oilers how to save in oil. He introduces devices of special efficiency and new intricacy, as the air-brake, and employs an air-brake instructor to teach their use. He tones up the entire organization in their knowledge of train rules. In this form of education he is impressed by the close relation between discipline and instruction. In fact, in the largest sense discipline and instruction are one. He makes large returns on the money invested in such instruction, because the great body of men are immensely increased in efficiency. This increased efficiency being due to more skill calls for no greater expenditure of effort, and, therefore, does not often call for heavy wage increases.

There is another form of education in which the railroad manager undertakes to instruct individuals for places of especial usefulness. So far this instruction has been entirely confined within the service, men of special merit being passed along through the lines of apprenticeship to the place of larger responsibility. At Altoona, the Pennsylvania Railroad has long conducted a school of apprentices from which it has drawn all but one of the present operating officers of the road. Schools on the outside have only in part been able to assist in the training of men for railroad service. The technical graduate has become a necessity and his diploma is no longer ques-

tioned, but he must submit to a severe apprenticeship in the shops before his diploma passes at current value.

Latterly there has been a disposition to recognize the superior attainments of the college graduate in the liberal arts. Some universities have undertaken special work to fit college students for the railroad career. There are courses at Wisconsin University, University of Pennsylvania, Chicago University, New York University, and Dartmouth College, which have been laid out with this in view. McGill University at Montreal is undertaking this work upon a little different plan. The railroads of Canada are there co-operating with the university not only in the support of its instructing staff, but in arranging to take over the men who graduate into the railroad staff. They also provide apprentices' work during vacations through the course and thus enable them to alternate the practical with the theoretical.

The training of men for inferior positions has so far not been undertaken on a serious scale. The correspondence schools have done good work and there has now been opened a school at Elmira, N. Y., called the Railway Training School. This school undertakes to train men for the position of station agents. It has the cordial indorsement of the railway managers and the special advantage of the co-operation of railways which will take over its graduates who meet certain requirements.

The whole matter of railway education is so far inchoate. We have not yet developed the high professional standard for railway service which the importance of the service calls for.—*Wall Street Journal, New York City, January 14, 1905.*

## LEGISLATION REGULATING AND PROHIBITING THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN THE UNITED STATES.

The importance of laws to protect women and children in industry is recognized by all classes. With very few exceptions the several divisions of the United States have laws restricting the age of children in manufacturing and mercantile establishments, workshops, and mines. Laws regulating the hours of labor during which children and women may be employed, restriction as to the length of the workday, and provisions as to overtime, as well as prohibition of employment of women and minors in prescribed dangerous and unhealthful occupations, may be found in the statutes of practically all the States.

In enacting statutes of this nature, the legislatures take into consideration, to a large extent, the influence of precedent, and as there is

comparatively no uniformity in labor legislation, direct reference must be made to the laws of each State in order to obtain the information for the several States.

Even in States where one special industry predominates, the laws governing child labor widely differ. An example of this is clearly shown in the textile manufacturing States of the North and the South. Massachusetts, which is the foremost of the Northern States in the textile industry, legally protected her children at labor in factories as early as 1836, but has not to-day as advanced legislation as some other States.

A chronological résumé of the most important legislation in Massachusetts relating to children and women in industry follows :

In 1836, no child under 15 years could be employed in any manufacturing establishment unless he had attended school three months during preceding year.

In 1842, no child under 12 years could be employed in any manufacturing establishment more than 10 hours a day.

In 1866, children under 10 excluded from employment in manufacturing establishments; children over 10 and under 14 excluded unless they have attended school six months yearly; children under 14 forbidden to work more than eight hours a day.

In 1867, no child under 10 years to be employed in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment under any circumstances, and no child between 10 and 15 years to be so employed unless he has attended school three months during preceding year. No child under 15 can be employed more than 60 hours a week.

In 1874, no minor under 18 and no woman shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment more than 10 hours a day, except to make repairs on machinery or a shorter workday on one day of the week; but in no case shall the week's work exceed 60 hours. Employment forbidden of children under 15 years at public exhibitions.

In 1878, certificates to be kept by employers of age, etc., of children under 16, and amount of school attendance of those under 14.

In 1880, time tables prescribing the hours of labor were obliged to be posted.

In 1883, the provisions of the act cited for 1874 were extended so as to include mechanical and mercantile establishments.

In 1884, minors under 18 not to be employed in mercantile establishments more than 60 hours a week.

In 1885, no child under 12 years shall be employed in any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment, while the public schools are in session.

In 1886, printed notices were to be posted stating time of commencing and stopping work, time allowed for stopping and starting machinery, dinner hour, etc.

In 1887, children in factories not to clean machinery while it is in motion. No stopping of machinery for less than 30 minutes shall authorize overtime employment. Uniform and proper meal times secured for children, young persons, and women employed in factories and workshops. Employment forbidden for minors under 14 who cannot read and write in the English language.

In 1888, children under 13 forbidden employment at any time in any factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment. Such children not to be employed for wages during public school hours. Children under 14 not to be employed before 6 A.M. or after 7 P.M. Children under 14 not to be employed in any factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment except during vacations of public schools. Age and schooling certificates required of children under 16.

In 1890, children under 15 forbidden to operate an elevator. Employment of women and minors in manufacturing establishments prohibited between the hours of 10 P.M. and 6 A.M.

In 1892, no minor under 18 years and no woman shall be employed more than 58 hours a week in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment.

In 1894, laws relating to employment of labor of women and minors were codified.

In 1898, no child under 14 shall be employed in any factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment, nor at any work between the hours of 7 P.M. and 6 A.M. No child under 16 years to be employed without schooling certificate.

In 1900, the hours of labor in mercantile establishments for minors under 18 and women were reduced to 58 a week, but this restriction did not apply during the month of December in each year to persons employed in shops for sale of goods at retail.

In 1902, Chap. 106, § 35, Revised Laws, was amended so that illiterate minors shall not be employed in a city or town where a public evening school is maintained, and no minor over 14 years of age can be employed unless a certificate is produced signed by the superintendent of school or the school committee certifying to the minor's ability to read and write simple sentences in the English language.

In 1904, Chap. 106, § 23, Revised Laws, was amended so as *not* to exclude the month of December in each year in the application of the 58-hour law for women and minors in mercantile establishments.

Since the passage of the law making 14 years the minimum age for children in employment, attempts have been made by subsequent legislatures to increase the age limit of children in employment to 15 and 16 years, but these measures have failed of enactment.

The greater part of the legislation that the South has on this subject has been enacted since 1900, while some of the Southern States are still without protective laws for working children.

It is gratifying to note that great progress was made along this line in 1903, and that the governors of some of the States which have no child labor laws strongly recommended the enactment of same in their inaugural messages.

Great stress has been laid upon the allegation that factory laws are not properly enforced, but as many of the States have a Factory Inspector, and as more rigid rules are being imposed each year for the enforcement of the law, it is to be hoped that this phase of the situation will soon be eliminated.

Labor bills that are being much agitated before the present legislature of Massachusetts are those pertaining to the hours of labor of women and children employed in the manufacture of textile goods, as well as to overtime — both to make up for time lost in consequence of stopping of machinery and to exempt the application of the 58-hour law in mercantile establishments during the month of December. The results of a personal investigation by the Bureau as to the consensus of opinion of those directly concerned in the last proposed measure is incorporated as a conclusion to this article.\*

In presenting this compilation of labor laws, the general object is to show in a condensed form, by States, all legislation directly pertaining to the employment of women and children in this country.

**Alabama.** No child under the age of 12 years shall be employed in or about any factory or manufacturing establishment, unless a widowed mother or aged or disabled father is dependent upon the labor of such child, or in case such child is an orphan and has no other means of support. No child under the age of 10 years shall be so employed under any circumstances. No woman nor any boy under 12 shall be employed in or about any mine.

No factory or manufacturing establishment shall employ any child unless there is first provided and placed on file in the office of such employer an affidavit signed by the parent or guardian certifying the age and date of birth of said child.

No child under the age of 13 years shall be employed at labor or detained in any factory or manufacturing establishment between the hours of 7 P.M. and 6 A.M., and no child under the age of 16 years shall be so employed or detained between said hours for more than 48 hours in any one week; and no child under the age of 12 shall be employed or detained in any factory or manufacturing establishment for more than 66 hours in any week.

**Arkansas.** No child under the age of 12 years shall be employed in or about any factory or manufacturing establishment unless a widowed mother or totally disabled father is dependent upon the labor of such child, or in case a child is an orphan and has no other means of support. No child under the age of 10 years shall be so employed under any circumstances.

No child shall be employed in any factory or manufacturing establishment unless there is first provided and placed on file in the office of such employer an affidavit signed by the parent or guardian certifying the age and date of birth of said child.

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\* See page 42, *post*.



No child under the age of 14 shall be employed at labor or detained at any factory or manufacturing establishment between the hours of 7 P.M. and 6 A.M., or for more than 60 hours in any one week, or more than 10 hours in any one day.

No child under 14 years shall be employed at labor in or about any factory or manufacturing establishment unless such child attends school for at least 12 weeks of each year—six weeks of said schooling to be consecutive.

No child under 14 years shall be employed in such establishment unless he or she can read and write his or her name and simple sentences in the English language.

No female and no person under 14 shall be employed in any mine. No boy under 16 shall work in any mine unless he can read and write. No person under 18 shall be employed as a hoisting engineer in any mine operated by a shaft or slope.

**California.** No child under 14 years shall be employed in any manufacturing or mercantile institution, or in any office, restaurant, hotel, apartment house, laundry, or in the distribution of or transmission of merchandise or messages; and every minor under 16 years when so employed shall be recorded in a book kept for the purpose, and a certificate showing age and birthplace duly verified by his parent or guardian shall be kept on file by the employer.

Employers of minors under 16 years of age in manufacturing establishments shall keep posted in every room where such help is employed a list of their names and ages and a notice stating the hours of labor.

No minor under the age of 18 shall be employed in laboring at any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment, or other place of labor, more than nine hours in one day, except to make repairs to prevent the interruption of the ordinary running of machinery, or for the sole purpose of making a shorter day's work for one day of the week; and in no case shall the hours of labor exceed 54 in a week. No child under 16 shall be employed in manufactories, mercantile institutions, offices, or laundries, between 10 P.M. and 6 A.M. Children under 16 must furnish certificates of age and schooling.

No child under 16 shall be employed in any vocation injurious to life, limb, health, or morals.

**Colorado.** No person shall employ any child under the age of 14 to labor in any business whatever during school hours, unless such child shall have attended some public or private day school, or shall have been regularly instructed at home, in those branches required to be taught in public schools in Colorado, at least 12 weeks in each year, eight weeks at least of which shall be consecutive; child shall, at the time of such employment, deliver to the employer a certificate of such attendance or instruction signed by the teacher.

It shall be unlawful to employ any child of 16 or under to work in any mill, factory, manufacturing establishment, shop or store, or in or about coal or other mines, or any occupation which may be deemed unhealthful or dangerous, for a greater number than eight hours in the 24-hour day, except in cases where life or property is in imminent danger, or during the week before and following Christmas: *Provided*, That any child between 14 and 16 may be exempted from the provisions of this act, if in the opinion of the judge of the County Court it would be for its best interests to be so exempted. All paper mills, cotton mills, and factories, where wearing apparel is made, ore reduction mills or smelters, factories, shops of all kinds and stores may be held to be unhealthful and dangerous occupations, at the discretion of the court.

No woman of 16 years or more shall be required to work more than eight hours in the 24-hour day in any mill, factory, manufacturing establishment, shop or store, where such work requires the woman to stand or be upon her feet.

No young person under 12 years of age or woman, or girl of any age, shall be permitted to enter any coal mine to work therein, nor any person under 16 unless he can read and write.

No child under 14 shall be employed in any underground works, or mine, or in any smelter, mill, or factory.

No child under 14 shall be employed in any vocation dangerous to the life, limb, health, or morals.

No person under 18 shall be employed as a hoisting engineer in any mine.

**Connecticut.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any mechanical, mercantile, or manufacturing establishment.

No person shall employ a child under 14 years of age during the hours that the school which such child should attend is in session.

No minor under 16 and no woman shall be employed in laboring in any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment more than 10 hours in any day, except to make repairs to prevent the interruption of the ordinary running of machinery, or for the purpose of making a shorter day's work one day of the week. Every employer shall post in every room where such persons are employed a notice stating the number of hours of work. In no case whatever shall the hours of labor exceed 60 in a week.

No child under 12 shall be employed in any vocation injurious to the life, limb, health, or morals of such child.

**Delaware.** No child under 15 shall be employed in any vocation injurious to the life, limb, health, or morals of such child.

**District of Columbia.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any vocation injurious to the life, limb, health, or morals.

**Florida.** No one shall hire or employ, or cause to be hired or employed, any minor, knowing such minor to be under 15, and under the legal control of another, without the consent of those having legal control, for more than 60 days.

**Georgia.** The hours of labor required of the persons employed in all cotton or woolen manufacturing establishments, except engineers, firemen, watchmen, mechanics, teamsters, yard employees, clerical force, and all help that may be needed to clean up and make necessary repairs or changes in or of machinery shall not exceed 11 hours a day, or 66 hours a week: *Provided*, That nothing shall prevent employees from working such time as may be necessary to make up lost time caused by accidents or unavoidable circumstances, said overtime not to exceed 10 days. All contracts providing for a longer period of labor are absolutely null and void.

The hours of labor by all persons under 21 in all other manufacturing establishments, or machine shops, shall be from sunrise to sunset, the usual and customary times for meals being allowed from the same. All contracts providing for a longer period of labor are null and void.

No child under 12 shall be employed as a gymnast, contortionist, or for any immoral exhibition, practice, or purpose.

**Hawaii.** It shall be unlawful for any keeper or proprietor of any place where intoxicating or spirituous liquors are sold or dispensed to employ any minor in or about such place.

**Illinois.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any theatre, concert hall, or place of amusement where intoxicating liquors are sold, or in any mercantile institution, store, office, hotel, laundry, manufacturing establishment, bowling alley, passenger or freight elevator, factory or workshop, or as a messenger or driver therefor. No child under 14 shall be employed for wages or other compensation while the public schools where he resides are in session nor be employed at any work between 6 P.M. and 7 A.M.: *Provided*, That no child shall be allowed to work more than eight hours in one day. No child over 14 and under 16 shall be so employed unless there is first provided and placed on file an affidavit made by the parent or guardian, stating the age, date, and place of birth of said child. A certificate of physical fitness may be demanded in the case of children who appear to be physically unable to perform the labor at which they may be engaged.

In every room where minors under 16 are employed a list containing the name, age, and place of residence of such minors must be kept posted. No child under 16 shall be so employed unless there is kept on file an age and schooling certificate and a correct list of all minors under 16 so employed who cannot read at sight and write legibly simple sentences, unless such child is attending night school. No person shall employ any minor over 14 and under 16, and no parent or guardian shall permit such child to be employed, who cannot read at sight and write legibly simple sentences unless minor attends public evening school.

No person under 16 shall be employed at any gainful occupation more than 48 hours in any one week, nor more than eight hours in any one day, nor between 7 P.M. and 7 A.M. Every employer shall post the hours of labor in a conspicuous place in every room where such minors are employed.

No child under 16 shall be employed at sewing belts in any capacity whatever, nor shall such child adjust any belt to any machinery; they shall not oil or assist in oiling, wiping, or cleaning machinery; they shall not operate or assist in operating circular or band saws, wood-shapers, wood-jointers, planers, sandpaper or wood polishing machinery, emery or polishing wheels used for polishing metal, wood-turning or boring machinery, stamping machines in washer and nut factories, operating corrugating rolls, such as are used in roofing factories, nor shall they be employed in operating any passenger or freight elevators, steam boilers, steam machinery, or other steam generating apparatus, or as pin boys in any bowling alleys; they shall not operate or assist in operating dough brakes or cracker machinery of any description; wire or iron straightening machinery; punches or shears, washing, grinding or mixing mill or calender rolls in rubber manufacturing; nor shall they operate or assist in operating laundry machinery; nor be employed in any capacity in preparing any composition in which dangerous or poisonous acids are used, and they shall not be employed in any capacity in the manufacture of paints, colors, or white lead; nor shall they be employed in any capacity whatever in operating or assisting to operate any passenger or freight elevator; nor shall they be employed in any capacity whatever in the manufacture of goods for immoral purposes, or any other employment that may be considered dangerous to their lives or limbs, or where their health may be injured or their morals depraved; nor in any theatre, concert hall or place of amusement where intoxicating liquors are sold; nor shall females under 16 be employed in any capacity where such employment compels them to remain standing constantly.

No male under 14 and no female shall be permitted to do any manual labor in or about any mine, and before any boy can be permitted to work in any mine, he must produce an affidavit from his parent or guardian stating that said boy is 14 years of age or over.

**Indiana.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any manufacturing or mercantile establishment, mine, quarry, laundry, renovating works, bakery, or printing office. Before persons under

16 may be employed in such places, there must be provided and placed on file an affidavit made by the parent or guardian, stating the age, date, and place of birth of said person. In every room where young persons are employed, there shall be posted a list of their names and ages. No person under 16 shall be employed in any establishment aforesaid, who cannot read and write simple sentences in the English language, except during the vacation of the public schools in district where such minor lives. If any child appears physically unable to perform the labor at which he is employed, the factory inspector may require a certificate of physical fitness from some reputable physician.

No child under 14 shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment more than eight hours a day. No person under 18 shall be employed in any cotton or woolen factory more than 10 hours a day. No person under 16 and no female under 18 employed in any manufacturing or mercantile establishment, laundry, renovating works, bakery, or printing office shall be required to work more than 60 hours in one week, nor more than ten hours in one day, unless for the purpose of making a shorter day on the last day of the week. In every room of such establishments employing such persons there shall be kept posted a notice showing the hours of labor.

No female shall be employed in any capacity for the purpose of manufacturing between 10 P.M. and 6 A.M.

Not less than 60 minutes shall be allowed for the noonday meal in any aforesaid establishment, except that the Chief Inspector may issue permits allowing a shorter meal time at noon in special cases.

No male under 14 and no female shall be employed in any coal mine. No child under 15 shall be employed in any theatrical or gymnastic exhibition, or at any occupation dangerous to life, limb, or morals. No person under 16 and no female under 18 shall be allowed to clean machinery while in motion. No young person under 18 shall be permitted to have the care, custody, management, or operation of any elevator.

**Iowa.** No person under 16 years of age, and no female under 18 years, shall be permitted or directed to clean machinery while in motion. Children under 16 years shall not operate or assist in operating dangerous machinery.

Boys under 12 shall not be employed in mines.

**Kansas.** No person under 12 shall be allowed to work in any coal mine, nor any minor between 12 and 16, unless he can read and write and furnish a certificate from a school teacher, which shall be kept on file, showing that he has attended school at least three months during the year.

No child under 14 to be employed in vocations or in places injurious to the health or morals.

**Kentucky.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any workshop, factory, or mine; unless employer knows the age of the child, he must require the parent or guardian to furnish a sworn statement of its age.

No child actually or apparently under 16 shall be employed in any occupation or place injurious to the life, limb, health, or morals of the child.

**Louisiana.** No boy under 12, and no girl under 14, shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment. No child under 14 shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment or attend itinerant musicians through the streets unless he has attended school four months of the 12 months preceding such employment. Schooling certificates must be kept on file.

No child under 18, and no woman, shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment, or where goods are prepared for manufacture, or warehouse, workshop, telephone or telegraph office, clothing, dressmaking, or millinery establishment, for more than 10 hours a day, or 60 hours a week; at least one hour shall be allowed each day for dinner. Mercantile establishments shall allow clerks one hour, between 10 A.M. and 3 P.M., for their mid-day meal.

Children under 12 shall not be permitted to operate or clean machinery in motion in factories. Females shall not be employed in concert halls or saloons where liquors are sold, for the purpose of serving or taking orders. Children under 15 shall not be employed as gymnasts, acrobats, etc., or in occupations injurious to life, limb, health, or morals.

**Maine.** No child under 12 shall be employed in a manufacturing or mechanical establishment. No child under 15 shall be so employed except during vacations of the public schools where he resides (he may be excused from attendance by superintendent of schools, etc.).

No female under 18 years of age, no male under 16, and no woman shall be employed in laboring in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment more than 10 hours in any one day, except when necessary to make repairs to prevent interruption of the ordinary running of the machinery, or for the purpose of making a shorter day's work for one day of the week; in no case shall the hours of labor exceed 60 in a week. No male 16 or over shall be so employed more than 10 hours a day during minority, unless he voluntarily contracts to do so with the consent of his parents or guardian; and in such cases he shall receive extra compensation for his services. Any female 18 or over may lawfully contract for such labor for any number of hours in excess of 10 hours a day, not exceeding six hours in any one week or 60 hours in any one year, receiving additional compensation therefor; she must, during minority, obtain consent of parents or guardian.

Every employer shall post the hours of labor in every room where such persons are employed.



Employers in manufacturing and mechanical establishments shall require and keep on file a certificate of age and place of birth of every child under 16 employed therein.

**Maryland.** No person under 14 shall be employed in any mill or factory, other than canning factories, unless such child is only support of widowed mother or invalid father or is solely dependent upon such employment for self-support. (Excepts 19 counties.)

No child under 16 shall be employed in laboring in any cotton, woolen, or other manufacturing establishment more than 10 hours in any one day. (Does not apply to children engaged in agriculture, household, or mercantile pursuits.)

No person employed in the manufacture of cotton or woolen yarns, fabrics, or domestics of any kind, shall be permitted to work more than 10 hours in any one day, for one full day's work; employers of such persons shall make no contract or agreement with such employees providing that they shall work for more than 10 hours for one day's work during any one day. Such employers shall be allowed to work male employees over 21, over the limit of 10 hours, only to make repairs and improvements, steam up, etc., which cannot be done during the limits of 10 hours; extra compensation for all such work to be settled between employer and employee; male employees over 21 may contract to work by the hour for such time as may be agreed upon.

No child under 16 shall be employed more than 10 hours a day in any mercantile business in the city of Baltimore.

No person in playing any musical instruments, selling any goods, or engaged in any occupation on the streets shall have in his possession or company while so engaged any child under eight years. No child under 14 shall be employed as acrobats, circus riders, etc. No minor under 16 shall be employed in handling intoxicating liquors in establishments where intoxicating liquors are prepared or offered for sale. No minor shall be allowed to sell or dispense any beer or spirituous or fermented liquors of any kind at retail when such are to be drunk upon the premises. No person under 12 years of age, or female of any age, shall be employed in any mine; no boy under 14 years, unless he can read and write, shall work in any mine.

**Massachusetts.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment. No such child shall be employed at any gainful occupation during the hours when the public schools are in session, nor between 7 P.M. and 6 A.M.

No child under 16 shall be employed in such establishment unless employer keeps on file an age and schooling certificate, lists of such persons employed (one such list to be posted near principal entrance of the building), and sends to school superintendent or committee a complete list of minors employed therein who cannot read at sight and write legibly simple sentences in the English language.

No child under 18 and no woman shall be employed in laboring in a mercantile establishment more than 58 hours a week. Hours of labor must be posted.

No child under 18 and no woman shall be employed in laboring in a manufacturing or mechanical establishment more than 10 hours a day, except to provide for a shorter day's work for one day of the week and to make up time lost in consequence of stopping of machinery; no stopping of machinery for less than 30 minutes shall justify such overtime employment; but in no case shall the hours of labor exceed 58 in any one week. Hours of labor to be posted.

No woman or minor can be employed for the purpose of manufacturing between 10 P.M. and 6 A.M.

No woman or young person shall be employed continuously in a factory or workshop for more than six hours without an interval of at least half an hour for a meal, or more than six and one-half hours unless employment for the day ends at 1 P.M., or more than seven and one-half hours unless allowed opportunity for eating a lunch during employment which ends, for the day, not later than 2 P.M. Does not apply to iron works, glass works, paper mills, letter press establishments, print works, dye works, or bleacheries.

Minors over 14 who cannot read and write, and who do not possess employment certificates shall not be employed while a public evening school is maintained unless regular attendants thereof, except that upon presentation of certificate of a physician that such attendance in addition to daily work would be injurious. Superintendent of school committee, or teachers acting under authority thereof, may issue a permit authorizing employment of such minor for such period as they determine for justifiable cause. Any minor not holding certificate described above shall furnish to employer a record of attendance each week while school is in session.

No child under 14 shall be permitted to clean machinery while in motion. No child under 16 shall operate an elevator, and no child under 18 shall operate an elevator running at a speed of over 100 feet a minute. Minors under 18 shall not be employed in manufacture of acids if such manufacture is determined by the State Board of Health to be injurious. Minors under 18 shall not be employed in handling intoxicating liquors or in handling packages containing intoxicating liquors in any brewery or bottling establishment. The exhibition of children under 15 in theatrical or gymnastic exhibitions is prohibited.

**Michigan.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment, hotel, or store. No child under 16 shall be so employed until there is provided and placed on file a sworn statement in writing made by the parent or guardian stating the age, date, and place of birth of said child and that child can read and write. No child under 16 shall be employed in any manufacturing

establishment or workshop between 6 p.m. and 7 a.m. Every person employing children under 16 must keep a register showing the name, birthplace, age, and place of residence of every such child. Factory Inspectors may demand certificates as to physical fitness of children under 16.

No child under 16 shall be employed in a manufacturing establishment at employment dangerous to the life, limb, health, or morals. No male under 18 and no female under 21 shall be allowed to clean machinery while in motion. No male under 18, and no female under 21 shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment (or store employing more than 10 persons), for more than 60 hours in one week except to make repairs to prevent the stoppage of the ordinary running of the machinery, or for the purpose of making a shorter workday on the last day of the week. [These restrictions apply to all places where goods, wares, or products are manufactured, repaired, cleaned, or sorted in whole or in part, except canning factories or evaporating works, or manufacturing establishments employing less than five persons.]

No less than 45 minutes shall be allowed for the noonday meal in any manufacturing establishment. Factory Inspectors may issue permits for shorter noon hours.

No person shall employ any girl or woman as a barkeeper, or to serve liquors, or to furnish music, or for dancing in any saloon or bar-room where spirituous or intoxicating liquors are sold (except relatives of proprietor of saloon).

No child under 16 shall be employed at any vocation injurious to the life, limb, health, or morals of such child.

**Minnesota.** No child under 14 shall be employed at any time in any factory, workshop, or mine; nor in any mercantile establishment, in the service of any telegraph, telephone, or public messenger company except during the public school vacation. No child under 16 shall be employed at any occupation dangerous to the life, limb, health, or morals; nor at any labor of any kind outside of the family of such child's residence between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m., nor more than 10 hours in any one day, nor more than 60 hours in any one week. Children 14 or over may be employed in mercantile establishments on Saturdays and for 10 days each year before Christmas until 10 p.m., provided such permission shall not be so construed as to permit such children to toil more than 10 hours in any one day, nor more than 60 hours in any one week. When the labor of any minor is necessary for the support of his family, or his own support, the school board of his town, may in the exercise of their discretion issue a permit or excuse, authorizing the employment of such minor.

No child actually or apparently under 16 shall be employed in any factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment, or in the service of any public telegraph, telephone or district messenger company unless a certificate is provided signed by the superintendent of schools, or deputy, or member of school board, and parent or guardian and duly sworn to before an authorized person, containing the name, birthplace, date of birth, and age of child, a statement that child can read and write in the English language, or is regularly attending a day or evening school.

No child under 16 shall be employed while the public schools are in session unless he has attended school for 12 weeks, at least six weeks of which must be consecutive. Certificates of physical fitness to perform labor at which employed may be demanded. No child under 16 who cannot read and write simple sentences in the English language shall be employed at any indoor occupations, except during school vacations, unless said child is a regular attendant at a day or evening school.

In all mechanical and manufacturing establishments where children under 18, and women, are employed, the time of labor of such persons shall not exceed 10 hours for each day.

No child under 16 shall have the care, custody, management or operation of any elevator, and no person under 18 shall operate elevators running at a speed of over 200 feet a minute.

**Missouri.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment, or where the work to be done would be in the opinion of two reputable physicians of that locality dangerous to the health of such child. No female (other than wife, daughter, mother, or sister of the proprietor) shall be employed in a place where spirituous, malt, or vinous liquors are sold at retail. No child under 14 shall be employed in any occupation dangerous to the life, limb, health, or morals.

No employee shall be allowed to work in any bakery or confectionery establishment more than six days in one week. No person under the age of 16 shall be employed in any bakery between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m.

No male under 12 or female of any age shall be employed in any mine; nor shall any boy under 14 work in any mine unless he can read or write.

**Montana.** No child under 16 years shall be employed in any underground works and mines.

No child under 16 shall be employed in any occupation dangerous to life, limb, health, or morals.

No child under 14 shall be employed while the public schools are in session, unless such child provide an age and schooling certificate. Every employer of children under 16 shall exact such certificate as a condition of employment, and shall keep same on file. No child under 16 shall be employed who cannot read and write the English language.

**Nebraska.** No child under 10 shall be employed in any manufacturing, mechanical, industrial, or mercantile establishment.

No child under 14 shall be employed in any such establishment, except during the vacations of the public schools, unless during the preceding year said child has attended for at least 20 weeks some public or private day school. School certificates must be furnished before such employment.

No female shall be employed in any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment, hotel or restaurant more than 60 hours in any one week, nor more than 10 hours in any one day, nor between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. Notices of hours to be posted.

**New Hampshire.** No child under 12 shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment. No child under 14 shall be employed in any manufacturing, mechanical, mercantile, or other employment while the public schools of his district are in session. No child under 16 shall be so employed while the public schools are in session without an age certificate signed by a parent or guardian and sworn to before the superintendent of schools or without a certificate showing that such child can read at sight and write legibly simple sentences in the English language. No illiterate minor shall be so employed while a free public evening school is maintained in his district, unless he is a regular attendant at such school, or unless a certificate signed by a physician states such attendance would be prejudicial to his health.

No woman and no minor under 18 shall be employed in a manufacturing or mechanical establishment more than 10 hours a day, except to make a shorter day's work for one day in the week, or to make up time lost on some day in the same week in consequence of the stopping of machinery upon which such person was dependent for employment, or when it is necessary to make repairs to prevent interruption of the ordinary running of machinery. In no case shall the hours of labor exceed 60 in one week, except during July and August when the hours of labor shall not exceed 58 a week. Notice of hours of labor to be kept posted.

No child under 14 shall be employed in any occupation dangerous to life, limb, health, or morals.

**New Jersey.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any factory, workshop, mill, or place where the manufacture of goods of any kind is carried on. Certificates of age and health are prescribed. Registers to be kept by employers of minors under 16 years. No minor under 16 shall be so employed more than 10 hours in any one day, or 55 hours in any one week.

Fifty-five hours shall constitute a week's work in any establishment where the manufacture of goods is carried on. Periods of employment shall be between 7 a.m. and 12 m., and 1 p.m. and 6 p.m., except on Saturdays when the period shall be from 7 a.m. to 12 m. No person under 18 and no woman shall be employed in such establishment except during the aforesaid periods (exceptions being made for persons engaged in preserving perishable goods, in fruit canning, or in the manufacture of glass).

No person under 18 shall be employed or be permitted to work in a biscuit, bread, or cake bakery between 7 p.m. and 7 a.m. No employee shall be allowed to work in a biscuit, bread, or cake bakery, or confectionery establishment more than 60 hours in any one week, or 10 hours in any one day, unless for the purpose of making a shorter workday on the last day of the week. In cases of emergency, employee may work not exceeding two additional hours a day, such overtime to be paid for at the current rate of weekly wages.

No child under 12 shall be employed in any underground works or mine. No child under 15 shall be employed in any vocation injurious to the life, limb, health, or morals. No minor under 16 shall be allowed to clean any gearing or machinery in any factory or workshop while in motion, or to work between the fixed or traversing parts of any machine while it is in motion by any mechanical power. No minor under 16 to be employed in any work dangerous to the health without a certificate of fitness from a reputable physician. No child under 18 shall be employed for mendicant purposes. No child under 15 shall act, dance, sing, etc., in any concert saloon, theatre, or place of entertainment where intoxicating liquors are sold or are given away, or with which any such place is directly or indirectly connected by a passageway or entrance.

**New York.** No child under 14 shall be employed in or in connection with any factory. No child between 14 and 16 shall be so employed unless an employment certificate is provided and filed in office of employer. (Employment certificate requires full year's attendance at school in the preceding year and ability to read and write and perform the fundamental operations of arithmetic; instruction in spelling, English grammar, and geography must be specified; also transcript of certificate of birth, and certificate of physical fitness.) Register containing name, birthplace, age, and place of residence must be kept by employer.

No minor under 16 shall be employed in any factory between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m., nor for more than nine hours in any one day. No minor under 18 and no female shall be employed in any factory between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m., nor for more than 10 hours in any one day except to make a shorter workday on the last day of the week, nor for more than 60 hours a week. Notification of such action must be made to the Commissioner of Labor. Notice of hours of labor must be kept posted.

No child under 16 shall be employed in any mercantile establishment, business office, or telegraph office, restaurant, hotel, apartment house, nor in the distribution or transmission of merchandise or messages more than 54 hours in any one week, or more than nine hours in any one day, or between 10 p.m. and 7 a.m. No female between 16 and 21 shall be employed in any mercantile establishment more than 60 hours in any one week; or more than 10 hours in any one day, unless for the purpose of making a shorter workday one day of the week; or between 10 p.m. and 7 a.m. Not less than 45 minutes shall be allowed for the noon-day meal in such establishment. (This section does not apply to the employment of persons 16 and over on Saturday provided the total number of hours of labor in a week does not exceed 60 hours, nor to the employment of such persons between December 15 and January 1.)



No child under 14 shall be employed in or in connection with mercantile or other establishments, hotels, apartment houses, or in transmission of messages, except that children over 12 may be employed therein in villages and cities of the third class (under 50,000 population) during the summer vacation of the public schools. No child under 16 shall be employed in any such establishment unless an employment certificate (issued on proof of satisfactory school record, requisite age, ability to read and write simple English, and physical fitness) has been provided and filed. (Cities of first and second classes are New York, Buffalo, Rochester, Syracuse, Albany, and Troy.)

No male under 18 and no female shall be employed in any factory using emery, tripoli, rouge, corundum, stone, carborundum, or any abrasive, or emery polishing or buffing wheel, where articles of the baser metals or of iridium are manufactured.

In each factory at least 60 minutes shall be allowed for the noon-day meal, unless the Factory Inspector shall permit a shorter time. Where employees work overtime for more than one hour after 6 P.M. they shall be allowed at least 20 minutes to obtain a lunch before beginning such overtime.

No employee shall work in a bakery or confectionery establishment more than 60 hours in any one week, or more than 10 hours in any one day unless for the purpose of making a shorter workday the last day of the week.

Children under 16 shall not be allowed to operate dangerous machines of any kind. No male under 18 or female under 21 shall be allowed to clean machinery while in motion.

Boys under 10 and girls under 16 may not sell newspapers in any street or public place in any city of the first class. No child to whom a permit to sell newspapers has been issued shall be so employed after 10 P.M.

Women or children shall not be employed in the basement of a mercantile establishment unless permitted by the board of health.

**North Carolina.** No child under 12 years shall be employed in any factory or manufacturing establishment except in oyster canning and packing manufactories where employees are paid by the gallon or bushel.

No person under 18 shall be required to work in any manufacturing establishment more than 66 hours in any one week (this restriction does not apply to engineers, firemen, machinists, superintendents, overseers, section and yard hands, office men, watchmen, or repairers of breakdowns). Parents or guardians must furnish written statement of age of children working in factories.

**North Dakota.** No child between eight and 14 shall be employed in any mine, factory or workshop or mercantile establishment, or, except by his parents or guardian, in any other manner, while the public schools of his district are in session, unless a certificate is obtained from the school superintendent stating that such child has attended school 12 weeks during the year.

No child under 18 and no woman shall be compelled, and no child under 14 shall be permitted, to labor in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment more than 10 hours in any one day.

**Ohio.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any factory, workshop, mercantile or other establishment, nor as a driver or messenger therefor; no child under 14 shall be employed in any other manner, for compensation or otherwise, while the public schools of his district are in session. Every child over 14 and under 16 so employed must furnish an age and schooling certificate, which the employer shall keep on file. In case of doubt of physical fitness, the inspector shall require a medical certificate. Employers of minors under 18 shall keep a register of the name, birthplace, age, and residence of such minors. No male under 16, and no female under 18, shall be so employed between 7 P.M. and 6 A.M., and no minor shall be so employed more than 10 hours in one day or 55 hours in one week; minors under 18 shall be allowed at least 30 minutes for the noonday meal. Hours of labor to be posted.

No child under 15 shall be allowed to work in any mine during the school term, and no child under 14 shall be so employed during the vacation interim. Employers shall keep a register of each minor showing name, age, place of birth, parents' names and residence, and character of employment.

No child under 16 shall be employed in any occupation dangerous to the life, limb, health, or morals.

**Oklahoma.** No child under 18 or woman shall be compelled, and no child under 14 shall be permitted, to work in any workshop, mechanical or manufacturing establishment more than 10 hours in one day.

**Oregon.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any factory, store, workshop, in or about any mine, or in the telegraph, telephone, or public messenger service. No child under 14 shall be employed in any work for wages or other compensation while the public schools of his district are in session. No child under 16 shall be employed more than 10 hours in one day, nor more than six days a week, nor between 7 P.M. and 6 A.M., and shall be entitled to no less than 30 minutes for the noon-day meal. Hours of labor must be posted. No minor under 16 shall be employed who cannot read at sight and write legibly simple sentences in the English language. Register of name, age, date of birth, and place of residence of children under 16 must be kept by employers of such children. Age and physical certificates provided for. (Creates Board of Inspectors of Child Labor to enforce.)

No female shall be employed in any mechanical establishment, factory, or laundry more than 10 hours in one day.

**Pennsylvania.** No child under 13 shall be employed in any manufacturing or mercantile establishment, laundry, workshop, renovating works, or printing office. No child between 13 and 16 years shall be employed in any such establishment unless there is first provided and placed on file an affidavit made by parent or guardian stating age, date, and place of birth of such child. Certificates of employment will not be issued to such children who cannot read and write the English language.

No minor and no female shall be employed at labor or detained in any manufacturing or mercantile establishment, laundry, workshop, renovating works, or printing office more than 12 hours in one day, or 60 hours in one week. Not less than 45 minutes shall be allowed for the noon-day meal. Hours of labor must be kept posted.

No minor and no female shall be employed at labor or detained in any biscuit, bread, pie, or cake bakery, pretzel or macaroni establishment, more than 10 hours in any one day, or 60 hours in any one week.

No employee shall be allowed to work in any biscuit, bread, or cake bakery, or confectionery establishment, more than six days in any one week. No person under 18 years shall be employed in any bakehouse between 9 P.M. and 5 A.M.

No minor under 14 shall operate an elevator. No minor under 16 shall be allowed to clean machinery while it is in motion. No male under 14 and no woman shall be employed in or about the outside structures or workings of a colliery, and no male under 16 and no female shall be employed in any anthracite or bituminous coal mine (employment at office and clerical work excepted). No child under 18 shall be employed for theatrical or athletic performances, or for playing upon musical instruments.

**Porto Rico.** No child of either sex under 16 years shall be compelled to work in agricultural factories and manufacturing establishments over six hours a day, three in the morning and three in the afternoon.

The exhibition of children of either sex under 16 years in acrobatic feats endangering their lives is prohibited.

**Rhode Island.** No child under 13 years shall be employed in any factory, manufacturing or business establishment. No child under 14 years shall be so employed after Dec. 31, 1906. No child under 15 shall be employed while the public schools are in session unless he can read and write.

No child under 15 years shall be employed in any manufacturing, mechanical or mercantile establishment, or by any telegraph or telephone company, except during the vacation of the public school, unless during the preceding 12 months he has attended school 80 days or has been excused by the school committee.

Employers of children under 16 must keep a register showing name, birthplace, age, residence and school attendance of such children.

No minor under 16 and no woman shall be allowed to labor in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment more than 58 hours in any one week, except to prevent the interruption of the ordinary running of machinery or to make shorter workday for one day of the week; but in no event shall the hours of labor exceed 10 in any one day. No child under 16 shall be employed in any factory, manufacturing, or business establishment unless there is first placed on file an age certificate. No child under 16 shall be so employed between 8 P.M. and 6 A.M. (Not applicable to mercantile establishments on Saturdays, or on either of the four days immediately preceding Christmas.) Hours of labor must be kept posted.

No minor under 16 shall be allowed to clean machinery while it is in motion.

No child under 16 shall be employed in any vocation injurious to the life, limb, health, or morals.

**South Carolina.** No child under 12 shall be employed in any factory, mine, or textile manufacturing establishment (the 12-year limit goes into effect May 1, 1905, 11 years being the minimum age in mills since May 1, 1904); children under 12 years of age, when orphaned and dependent upon themselves for support or in the case of a widowed mother or totally disabled father dependent upon them, may be permitted to work, provided, that sworn affidavits be made by parent or guardian as to the facts; children having school certificates of four months attendance and showing ability to read and write may work in textile establishments during June, July, and August.

No child under 12 shall be allowed to work in factory, mine, or textile manufacturing establishment between 8 P.M. and 6 A.M. except in case of breakdown of machinery, but under no circumstances shall the child be employed later than 9 P.M.

Eleven hours shall constitute a day's work, or 66 hours a week's work, in all cotton and woolen manufacturing establishments, for all employees and operatives except engineers, firemen, watchmen, mechanics, teamsters, yard employees, and clerical force; extra work (total not to exceed 70 hours) is allowed in certain contingencies, all contracts for longer period being null and void and contrary to law.

**South Dakota.** No child between eight and 14 years shall be employed in any mine, factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment, except by his parent or guardian, during school hours, unless child has attended school for 12 weeks during the year.

No woman, and no child under 18, shall be compelled and no child under 14 shall be permitted to labor more than 10 hours in any one day.

Children under 14 are not allowed to beg, to take part in exhibition, or to engage in anything injurious to health or morals.

**Tennessee.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any workshop, factory, or mine. Unless the employer knows the age of the child he shall require a sworn statement of its age from parent or guardian.

**Texas.** No child under 12 years is allowed to work in or about any mill, factory, manufacturing establishment, or other establishment using machinery.

Children between the ages of 12 and 14 years who cannot read and write simple sentences in the English language are not allowed to work in or about any mill, factory, manufacturing establishment, or other establishment using machinery, unless such child has a widowed mother or parent incapacitated to support it; in such case, the child may be employed between the hours of 6 A.M. and 6 P.M., but under no circumstances shall the child be allowed to work outside the specified hours.

Children under 16 cannot work in distilleries, breweries, or mines.

**Utah.** No female, and no child under 14, shall be employed in any mine or smelter.

**Vermont.** No child under 12 shall be employed in any mill, factory, or workshop, or in carrying or in delivering messages for any corporation or company. No child under 14 who cannot read and write can be employed while the public schools are in session. No child under 15 shall be employed in mill, factory, or workshop, or in the transmission of messages while the public schools of his district are in session, or after 8 P.M. No child under 16 shall be employed in a mill, factory, or workshop unless such child has attended public, private or parochial school 28 weeks during the current year, and furnishes a certificate of such attendance.

No female and no male under 21 years shall be employed on premises or in room in which license to sell liquors is operated.

**Virginia.** No child under 12 years shall be employed in any manufacturing, mercantile, or mining operation. No child over 12 and under 14 shall be so employed between 6 P.M. and 7 A.M. No female and no child under 14 shall be employed in any factory or manufacturing establishment more than 10 hours in one day.

**Washington.** No child under 14 shall be employed in any factory, mill, workshop, or store at any time. If the labor of a child between 12 and 14 years is found necessary for its own or invalid parent's support, such child may be granted permission to work at an occupation not dangerous to health or morals. No boy under 14 and no female shall be employed in any mine. No boy under 12 shall be employed in or about the outside structures or workings of a colliery, except at office or clerical work. No female under 18 shall be employed as public messenger. No female shall be employed in any place where intoxicating liquors are sold.

No female shall be employed in any mechanical or mercantile establishment, laundry, hotel, or restaurant more than 10 hours in any one day. Children under 16 years are forbidden employment in bakeries from 8 P.M. to 5 A.M.

**West Virginia.** No minor under 12 years of age shall be employed in any mine, or in any factory, workshop, or establishment where goods or wares are manufactured. No boy under 12 and no female shall be permitted to work in any coal mine.

**Wisconsin.** No child under 14 shall be employed at any time in any factory, workshop, bowling alley, bar-room, beer garden, or in or about any mine, except during public school vacations. Children between 12 and 14 may receive permission to work in a store, office, hotel, mercantile establishment, laundry, or for transmission companies, provided he obtains a permit from the Commissioner of Labor, Factory Inspector, or from the County or Municipal Judge in his own town, district, or city. Certificates of age and physical fitness are provided for, and employers must keep register of minors employed. No child between 14 and 16 years shall be employed at any time for wages at a gainful occupation, unless such child first obtains a written permit authorizing such employment.

No person under 16 years shall be employed more than 10 hours in any one day, nor more than six days in any one week, nor between 9 P.M. and 6 A.M., except that boys may carry newspapers between the hours of 4 A.M. and 6 A.M. No person under 18 shall be employed at manufacturing cigars more than eight hours a day, or 48 hours a week.

No child under 14 shall be employed in any vocation injurious to life, limb, health, or morals. Licenses to theatrical exhibitions employing minors under 15 in such a manner as to endanger their health or morals are forbidden.

No minor under 16 shall operate an elevator.

Employment of girls under 18 years as messengers by transmission companies is prohibited.

**Wyoming.** Employment forbidden by Constitution of State of males under 14 years and females in or about any coal, iron, or other dangerous mine or underground works, office and clerical work excepted. No child under 14 shall be employed in any vocation injurious to life, limb, health, or morals. No person under 18 shall be employed as hoisting engineer in mines.

An aggregation of the legislation for the various States is presented in the following tabular statement :



*Ages, Hours of Labor, etc., of Women and Children in Industry.*

	STATES.	Minimum Age of Employment of Children	Other Requirements as to Age, Schooling, Certificates, etc.	Minimum Age of Children in Occupations Dangerous to Life, Limb, Health, and Morals
1	Alabama, . . . .	12 <sup>1</sup>	Age certificate, . . . . .	-
2	Arizona, . . . .	-	- - - -	-
3	Arkansas, . . . .	12 <sup>1</sup>	Age certificate; children under 14 must be able to read and write and attend school 12 weeks a year.	-
4	California, . . . .	14	Age and school certificates for children under 16,	16
5	Colorado, . . . .	14	School certificate; children under 14 must attend school 12 weeks a year.	14
6	Connecticut, . . .	14	- - - -	12
7	Delaware, . . . .	-	- - - -	15
8	District of Columbia,	-	- - - -	14
9	Florida, . . . . .	-	- - - -	-
10	Georgia, . . . . .	-	- - - -	12
11	Hawaii, . . . . .	-	- - - -	-
12	Illinois, . . . . .	14	Employment of children during school hours, and of illiterate children under 16 prohibited. Age and school certificate for children under 16.	14
13	Indiana, . . . . .	14	Age certificate for children under 16. Employment of illiterate children under 16 prohibited.	15
14	Iowa, . . . . .	-	- - - -	-
15	Kansas, . . . . .	-	- - - -	14
16	Kentucky, . . . .	14	- - - -	16

<sup>1</sup> 10, if found to be absolutely necessary.<sup>2</sup> Children over 14 may work more than 8 hours, if judge of county court thinks necessary.

*Ages, Hours of Labor, etc., of Women and Children in Industry.*

Maximum Labor Allowed for Women and Children	Prohibition of Hours of Labor; Overtime, etc.	Labor Prohibited in Mines	Remarks	
Children under 12, 66 hours a week.	Children under 13, 7 P.M. to 6 A.M. Children under 16, between 7 P.M. and 6 A.M., not more than 48 hours a week.	Boys under 12 and women.	- - -	1
- - -	- - -	More than 8 hours a day.	- - -	2
Children under 14, 10 hours a day, or 60 hours a week.	Children under 14, 7 P.M. to 6 A.M.	Females; boys under 14, boys under 16 who cannot read and write.	- - -	3
Minors under 18, 9 hours a day or 54 hours a week.	Children under 16, 10 P.M. to 6 A.M. Overtime to prevent stoppage of machinery and to provide for weekly half-holiday.	- - -	- - -	4
Children under 16 <sup>2</sup> , and women if required to stand, 8 hours a day.	Overtime when life or property in danger; week before and after Christmas.	Children under 12, women, boys under 16 more than 8 hours, boys under 16 who cannot read and write. (Coal mines.) Persons under 18 as hoisting engineers.	- - -	5
Women and minors under 16, 10 hours a day, 60 hours a week.	Overtime to prevent interruption of machinery and provide for weekly half-holiday.	- - -	- - -	6
- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	7
- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	8
Minors under 15, 60 days unless consent of parent is given.	- - -	- - -	- - -	9
In cotton and woolen factories, 11 hours a day or 66 hours a week. <sup>3</sup>	In other than cotton and woolen factories for minors under 21, from sunset to sunrise. Overtime in case of accidents, etc., not to exceed 10 days.	- - -	- - -	10
- - -	- - -	- - -	Employment of minors in places where liquor is sold prohibited.	11
Children under 16, 8 hours a day, 48 hours a week.	Children under 16, 7 P.M. to 7 A.M.	Females; minors under 14.	Employment of children under 16 in dangerous occupations and females under 16 where compelled to remain standing prohibited.	12
Females under 18, males under 16, 10 hours a day or 60 hours a week. Persons under 18 in cotton and woolen mills, 10 hours a day. Children under 14 in manufacturing 8 hours.	Females in manufacturing, 10 P.M. to 6 A.M. Overtime to provide for weekly half-holiday.	Males under 14 and females.	No person under 18 to operate elevator. Males under 16 and females under 18 not to clean machinery while in motion.	13
- - -	- - -	Boys under 12, . .	Minors under 16 not to operate dangerous machinery.	14
- - -	- - -	Children under 12; under 16 unless able to read and write and have attended school 3 months.	- - -	15
- - -	- - -	Children under 14, . .	- - -	16

<sup>3</sup> For men also, except engineers, watchmen, teamsters, clerical force, etc.

*Ages, Hours of Labor, etc., of Women and Children in Industry — Continued.*

	STATES.	Minimum Age of Employment of Children	Other Requirements as to Age, Schooling, Certificates, etc.	Minimum Age of Children in Occupations Dangerous to Life, Limb, Health, and Morals
1	Louisiana, . . .	Males 12, females 14.	Age and school certificates for children under 14,	15
2	Maine, . . . .	12; 15 during school hours.	Age certificate for children under 16, . . .	-
3	Maryland, . . .	14 <sup>1</sup>	- - -	14
4	Massachusetts, . .	14	Age and school certificates for children under 16,	15
5	Michigan, . . . .	14	Age certificate for children under 16, . . .	16
6	Minnesota, . . . .	14	Children under 16 must attend school 12 weeks a year, be able to read and write, and present age and school certificates.	16
7	Missouri, . . . .	14	- - -	14
8	Montana, . . . .	-	Children under 14 employed during school hours must present age and schooling certificates; under 16 must be able to read and write.	16
9	Nebraska, . . . .	10	Children under 14 employed during school hours must have attended school 20 weeks the preceding year.	-
10	Nevada, . . . .	-	- - -	-
11	New Hampshire, .	12; 14 during school hours.	Employment of illiterate minors, unless attending night school, forbidden.	14
12	New Jersey, . . .	14	Physician's certificate for children under 16 in dangerous occupations.	15

<sup>1</sup> Excepts canning factories and 19 counties.



*Ages, Hours of Labor, etc., of Women and Children in Industry — Continued.*

Maximum Labor Allowed for Women and Children	Prohibition of Hours of Labor; Overtime, etc.	Labor Prohibited in Mines	Remarks	
Children under 18, and women, 10 hours a day, 60 hours a week.	- - -	- - -	Employment of females where liquor is sold, of children under 12 to clean moving machinery, prohibited.	1
Males under 16 and females, 10 hours a day, 60 hours a week.	Overtime to prevent interruption of machinery, to provide for half-holiday. Males over 16 and females over 18 may contract for more than 10 hours, overtime for females not to exceed 6 hours a week, 60 hours a year.	- - -	- - -	2
Persons in cotton and woolen mills, 10 hours a day. Children under 16 in manufactories 10 hours. Children under 16 in mercantile establishments in Baltimore 10 hours.	Overtime, males over 21 to make repairs, etc.	Females, males under 12, males under 14 who cannot read and write.	Employment of minors under 16 where liquors are sold, and minors at selling liquor at retail to be drunk on premises, prohibited.	3
Children under 18 and women 10 hours a day, 58 hours a week.	Women and minors, 10 P.M. to 6 A.M.; more than 6 hours without 30 minutes for a meal. Overtime (total week not to exceed 58 hours) to provide for weekly half-holiday.	- - -	Minors under 14 not to clean moving machinery, under 16 not to operate elevators, under 18 not in manufacture of dangerous acids or in breweries.	4
Males under 18, females under 21, 60 hours a week.	Children under 16, 6 P.M. to 7 A.M. Overtime to prevent interruption of machinery and provide for weekly half-holiday.	- - -	Employment of females in places where liquor is sold, of females under 21 and males under 18 to clean machinery in motion, prohibited.	5
Children under 18 and women 10 hours a day, 60 hours a week.	Children under 16, 7 P.M. to 6 A.M. Children over 14 may work until 10 P.M. 10 days before Christmas, not to exceed 10 hours a day.	- - -	Employment of children under 16 to operate elevators, under 18 if elevators run faster than 2.0 feet a minute, prohibited.	6
- - -	- - -	Males under 12, under 14 unless able to read and write.	Employment of females where liquor is sold, of persons in bakeries over 6 days a week and (for minors under 16) between 9 P.M. and 5 A.M., prohibited.	7
- - -	- - -	Children under 16, . . .	- - -	8
Females 10 hours a day, 60 hours a week.	Females, 10 P.M. to 6 A.M.	- - -	- - -	9
- - -	- - -	Over 8 hours a day, . . .	- - -	10
Women and minors 10 hours a day or 60 a week; during July and August, 58 hours a week.	Overtime, to provide for weekly half-holiday, to make up lost time due to stopping of machinery, to make necessary repairs, total working week not to exceed 60 hours.	- - -	- - -	11
Minors under 16, 10 hours a day, 55 hours a week, in manufactories. <sup>2</sup>	Persons under 18 and women in manufactories 6 P.M. to 7 A.M. Saturdays after 12 M.	Persons under 12, . . .	Employment of women or minors under 16 to clean machinery in motion, of children under 18 as mendicants, of persons under 18 in bakeries between 7 P.M. and 7 A.M., prohibited.	12

<sup>2</sup> Includes men.

*Ages, Hours of Labor, etc., of Women and Children in Industry — Continued.*

	STATES.	Minimum Age of Employment of Children	Other Requirements as to Age, Schooling, Certificates, etc.	Minimum Age of Children in Occupations Dangerous to Life, Limb, Health, and Morals
1	New York, . . .	14 <sup>1</sup>	Age and schooling (employment) certificate for children under 16.	-
2	North Carolina, . .	12 <sup>2</sup>	Age certificate for children, . . . . .	-
3	North Dakota, . .	-	Children under 14 in mines, factories, and mercantile establishments must attend school 12 weeks during the year.	-
4	Ohio, . . . .	14	Schooling and age certificates for children under 16,	16
5	Oklahoma, . . . .	-	- - - -	-
6	Oregon, . . . .	14	Age certificate for children under 16, . . .	-
7	Pennsylvania, . .	13; 16 if illiterate.	Age certificate for children under 16, . . .	13
8	Porto Rico, . . .	-	- - - -	16
9	Rhode Island, . .	13	Age certificate for children under 16. School attendance 80 days during preceding year for children under 15.	16
10	South Carolina, . .	12 <sup>3</sup>	Children with certificate of 4 months school attendance, able to read and write may work in textile mills during June, July, and August.	-
11	South Dakota, . .	-	Children under 14 in mines, factories, and mercantile establishments must attend school 12 weeks a year.	14

<sup>1</sup> Except children over 12 may be employed in mercantile establishments, hotels, and in transmission of messages in cities of less than 50,000 population during summer school vacation.

<sup>2</sup> Except in oyster canning and packing manufactories.

<sup>3</sup> Not applicable to engineers, firemen, machinists, superintendents, overseers, section and yard hands, office men, watchmen, or repairers of breakdowns.

*Ages, Hours of Labor, etc., of Women and Children in Industry — Continued.*

Maximum Labor Allowed for Women and Children	Prohibition of Hours of Labor; Overtime, etc.	Labor Prohibited in Mines	Remarks	
Children under 16, 9 hours a day, 54 hours a week in factories and mercantile establishments. Minors under 18, females under 21, 10 hours a day, 60 hours a week, in mercantile establishments.	Minors under 18 in factories, 9 P.M. to 6 A.M.; minors under 16 and females under 21 in mercantile establishments 10 P.M. to 7 A.M. Overtime to provide for weekly half-holiday; persons over 16 on Saturdays (total hours not to exceed 60 a week) between Dec. 15 and Jan. 1.	- - -	Employment prohibited of males under 18 and females in factories using emery, etc.; of women and children in basements in mercantile establishments; over 10 hours a day, or 60 hours a week in bakeries; of males under 18, females under 21 to clean machinery in motion; of children under 16 to operate dangerous machines; of males under 10, females under 16 to sell papers on streets in cities of first class; of children having permits to sell papers, after 10 P.M.	1
Persons under 18, 66 hours a week <sup>3</sup>	- - -	- - -	- - -	2
Children between 14 and 15 and women (not compelled), children under 14 (not permitted), to work more than 10 hours a day.	- - -	- - -	- - -	3
Males under 16, females under 18, 10 hours a day, 55 hours a week.	Males under 16, females under 18, 7 P.M. to 6 A.M.	Children under 14; under 15 during school hours.	- - -	4
Children under 18 and women, in factories, 10 hours a day.	- - -	- - -	- - -	5
Children under 16 and women 10 hours a day.	Children under 16, 7 P.M. to 6 A.M.	- - -	- - -	6
Minors and females 12 hours a day, 60 hours a week.	- - -	Males under 16 and females in coal mines, males under 14 and females about outside workings of colliery <sup>4</sup>	Employment prohibited of minors under 16 to clean machinery in motion; of minors under 14 to operate elevators; of minors and females in bakeries more than 10 hours a day, 60 hours a week; of persons under 18 in bakeries between 9 P.M. and 5 A.M.	7
Children under 16 in agricultural factories and manufacturing establishments 6 hours a day, 3 in morning, 3 in afternoon.	- - -	- - -	- - -	8
Minors under 16 and women, in factories, 10 hours a day, 58 hours a week.	Overtime to prevent interruption of machinery, to provide for weekly half-holiday.	- - -	Employment of children under 16 to clean machinery in motion prohibited.	9
Operatives in cotton and woolen manufactories, 11 hours a day, 66 hours a week <sup>6</sup>	Children under 12 in factories 8 P.M. to 6 A.M. Overtime in case of breakdown, but not later than 9 P.M.	Children under 12, <sup>5</sup>	- - -	10
Children between 14 and 18 and women (not compelled), children under 14 (not permitted), to work more than 10 hours a day.	- - -	- - -	- - -	11

<sup>4</sup> Does not apply to office and clerical work.<sup>5</sup> Goes into effect May 1, 1905.<sup>6</sup> Except engineers, firemen, watchmen, mechanics, teamsters, yard employees, and clerical force.



*Ages, Hours of Labor, etc., of Women and Children in Industry — Concluded.*

	STATES.	Minimum Age of Employment of Children	Other Requirements as to Age, Schooling, Certificates, etc.			Minimum Age of Children in Occupations Dangerous to Life, Limb, Health and Morals
1	Tennessee, . . .	14	-	-	-	-
2	Texas, . . .	12; 14 if illiterate.	-	-	-	-
3	Utah, . . .	-	-	-	-	-
4	Vermont, . . .	12; 15 during school hours.	School attendance 28 weeks during year for children under 16.			-
5	Virginia, . . .	12	-	-	-	-
6	Washington, . .	14 <sup>1</sup>	-	-	-	14
7	West Virginia, .	12	-	-	-	-
8	Wisconsin, . . .	14 <sup>2</sup>	Age certificate for children under 16, . . .			14
9	Wyoming, . . .	-	-	-	-	14

<sup>1</sup> 12 if absolutely necessary.<sup>2</sup> Does not apply to office and clerical work.

Chapter 397 of the Acts of 1904, amending Chap. 106, Sec. 23, of the Massachusetts Revised Laws, reads as follows: "No child under 18 years of age and no woman shall be employed in laboring in a mercantile establishment more than 58 hours in a week."

In the legislature of 1905 a petition was introduced providing that the month of December should not be included in the law prohibiting the employment of women and children in mercantile establishments more than 58 hours in one week. As amended it was intended that this law should read as follows:

"No child under eighteen years of age and no woman shall be employed in laboring in a mercantile establishment more than fifty-eight hours in a week; but the provisions of this section shall not apply during December to persons who are employed in shops for the sale of goods at retail."

Believing that the employees should have the privilege of expressing their opinion in regard to the petition and realizing that it was impossible for them to attend the preliminary hearings in the State House, a special agent of this Department was instructed to interview them and gain a knowledge as to their opinions. The agent's report follows:

Have visited all the principal stores and several of the smaller ones, situated between Boylston St. and Scollay Sq., Tremont and Washington Sts., also South Boston, and have interviewed over seven hundred employees in retail shops.

At many of the large department stores I found a very harmonious feeling between employer and employee, the employer having regard for the health and interests of the employee, and the workers

[ *Ages, Hours of Labor, etc., of Women and Children in Industry—Concluded.*

Maximum Labor Allowed for Women and Children	Prohibition of Hours of Labor; Overtime, etc.	Labor Prohibited in Mines	Remarks	
- - -	- - -	Children under 14, .	- - -	1
- - -	Children under 14, 6 P. M. to 6 A. M.	Children under 16, .	- - -	2
- - -	- - -	Children under 14 and women.	- - -	3
- - -	Children under 15 after 8 P. M.	- - -	- - -	4
Children under 14 and females, 10 hours a day.	Children under 14, 6 P. M. to 7 A. M.	Children under 12, .	- - -	5
Females 10 hours a day, .	Children under 16 in bakeries 8 P. M. to 5 A. M.	Boys under 14 and females. Boys under 12 about outside workings of a colliery. <sup>2</sup>	Employment of females where liquor is sold and as public messengers prohibited.	6
- - -	- - -	Boys under 12 and females in coal mines.	- - -	7
Persons under 16, 10 hours a day, 6 days a week. In cigar factories, 8 hours a day, 48 hours a week.	Persons under 16, 9 P. M. to 6 A. M. (Boys may carry newspapers between 4 and 6 A. M.)	- - -	Employment prohibited of minors under 16 to operate elevators and of girls under 18 as public messengers.	8
- - -	- - -	Males under 14 and females. <sup>2</sup> Persons under 18 as hoisting engineers. Over 8 hours in coal mines.	- - -	9

<sup>2</sup> 12 during school vacations in mercantile establishments.

grateful for the consideration. During the extra work of week preceding Christmas in most large stores, additional time is given for the lunch hour, and provision is also made for supper either in money or food. The regulations for this extra week varied a little in the several stores, but the employees generally expressed themselves as content with the laws. Dissatisfaction was sometimes expressed by the clerks employed in stores where the lunch hour was shortened, and where little or no attention was given to the supper item; but throughout all the investigation, whether the shop was large or small, the feeling was expressed that there should be no change in the law of 58 hours as it now stands.

There seems to be, in some stores, still room for improvement during the Christmas week, in the opinion of the employees, but almost invariably the comment has been, "I have no fault to find with this house, but I hear from others of my friends employed elsewhere of the hardships that they have to endure."

In houses where the saleswomen were given by their employer, or the manager, full permission to speak, I found a more free expression against any change in the hours of labor than was met in houses where they feared frankness might lose them their positions.

I found between two houses engaged in the same business that the older established house has been obliged to have their saleswomen work Saturday nights to keep in step with their nearby competitor who began with that system. The comment of the manager of the first house was, "We do not like to have our employees work Saturday nights, but are compelled so to do until our competitor keeps regular hours, as the competition in business would otherwise cause us to financially suffer." At Christmas time in this longer established house, one young lady who had been with the firm four years said that the firm was very good in pay and hours and that during the Christmas week the girls were divided in groups as to time; that is, those who remained late one night were not obliged to come as early as usual the next morning. This I found, in almost every case during the investigation, to be the custom with the houses that kept open the evenings of Christmas week later than their regular working hours. At the establishment mentioned which compels the extra work on Saturday, some saleswomen informed me that it was without extra pay, but that they would have no objection to the over hours if the extra pay was proportionate.

At one store I found a very pleasant feeling of harmony, as the proprietor works with the saleswomen during the day, watches over their health and comfort, and they are given many privileges. For 10 days at Christmas time this house is open evenings, each girl working every other day until 9 to 10 P. M. Those working over hours are given their supper or fifty cents for its purchase, and do not have to report for duty the next day until 11 A. M. They are frequently given opportunities to go off for an hour or so or for half a day without having their pay deducted, and are given two weeks' vacation with pay.

One objection, met several times, to the change in the present law was that the saleswomen would be opposed to extra hours even if extra paid because human strength and endurance have their limit and "would be taken out in the bones" by the extra pay having to go for doctor's bills.

At one store, where, in addition to the Christmas week the house keeps open three nights each week, one saleswoman stated as follows: "This night work during the week is what is killing us. At Christmas we have three hours for meals, one and one-half hours at noon and the same period at night, but the extra work with the yearly night work compels many to lay off for a week or longer at their own expense."

At another house which keeps open three nights each week, and at other houses as well, where early closing is the rule, the question as to whether they would object to the extension of the hours of labor as in the proposed law or not, was sometimes met by clerks with, "Well, that is a fool question; if you had come and asked us if we wanted to *decrease* the hours of labor, you would have found us all willing, but I don't think you will find anybody that will be willing to work over hours." Others met the question that they would be willing to work the month of December in the evenings providing that the work for each week should not exceed 58 hours.

At one house the lady in charge of one of the departments stated that the house did not keep open Christmas week, but that she had been thirteen years a saleswoman and her experience was that the girls who were kept over hours were no good the next day, and that she was decidedly opposed to prolonging the hours of evening work as prejudicial to the morals of the young people and women who were obliged to return to their homes at a late hour. One proprietor of a department store showed me his schedule of hours for the past Christmas showing that they had been fully within the time limit, and said he was quite in favor of the law as it now stands. Another proprietor, who also favored the law as it now

## BULLETINS OF BUREAUS OF LABOR.

The Bureau for the first time publishes a list of the official journals issued by the Labor Departments of the Government of the United States and foreign countries so far as it has knowledge of the publications by receiving same. There are other bulletins published by the different bureaus of labor in the United States which do not exactly come within the scope of this list. The Labor Bureaus of Illinois and Ohio publish bulletins relating to the free employment offices conducted within their respective States; some of the Western States publish bulletins on agriculture, forestry, or some special industry. The Labour Department of New South Wales began the publication of a monthly Labour Bulletin

	STATES AND COUNTRIES.	Official Title	By Whom and Where Published
	UNITED STATES.		
1	Massachusetts, . . .	Massachusetts Labor Bulletin, . . .	Bureau of Statistics of Labor, Boston, . .
2	Nebraska, . . .	Bulletin of the State Bureau of Labor, . .	Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics, Lincoln.
3	New York, . . .	New York Labor Bulletin, . . .	Department of Labor, New York, . . .
4	United States, . . .	Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor, . .	Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington.
	FOREIGN COUNTRIES.		
5	Austria, . . .	Soziale Rundschau, . . .	K. k. arbeitsstatistisches Amt, Vienna, . .
6	Belgium, . . .	Revue du Travail, . . .	Office du Travail de Belgique, Brussels, . .
7	Canada, Dominion of . .	The Labour Gazette, . . .	Department of Labour, Ottawa, . . .
8	England, . . .	The Labour Gazette, . . .	Labour Department, Board of Trade, London.
9	France, . . .	Bulletin de l'Office du Travail, . .	Ministère du Commerce, de l'Industrie, des Postes et des Télégraphes, Paris
10	Germany, . . .	Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, . . .	Kaiserliches Statistisches Amt, Abteilung für Arbeiterstatistik, Berlin.
11	Italy, . . .	Bollettino dell' Ufficio del Lavoro, . .	Ministero di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio, Rome.
12	Netherlands, . . .	Tijdschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek.	Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 'S-Gravenhage.
13	New Zealand, . . .	Journal of Department of Labour, . .	Department of Labour, Wellington, . .
14	Norway, . . .	Arbeidsmarkedet, . . .	Statistiske Centralbureau, Christiania, . .
15	Spain, . . .	Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales.	Instituto de Reformas Sociales, Madrid, . .
16	Sweden, . . .	Meddelanden, . . .	Afdelning för Arbetsstatistik, k. Kommerskollegii, Stockholm, . . .



stands, objected to the frequent supervision given by the State over the houses in Boston, while the houses in the suburbs and adjacent towns and cities were permitted, apparently, to ignore the law of 58 hours. He was perfectly willing, as were other proprietors, to abide by whatever the merchants in general desired.

There was but one among the hundreds interviewed who really expressed herself as being willing to have the hours lengthened, and by inquiry, it was ascertained that her husband was also engaged in the house in a position nearer the firm. The saleswomen who overheard her conversation with me said that they did not at all agree with her, but quite the contrary; yet, for the sake of their positions, would not like to go on record as so stating.

A general canvass was made in another store, and of the 30 saleswomen interviewed, the opinion was unanimous that the hours were now sufficiently long, and that they would object to any change. At another house one of the saleswomen said that she was very much opposed to extra hours even with extra pay, for while that extra pay might be given at the start, it would probably soon be discontinued. In one of the largest department stores in Boston, among the women employees, the consensus of opinion was that the present law is right as it is, and should be left untouched.

In closing this report, would state that the employers in Boston and South Boston, when asked, expressed themselves as perfectly willing that their saleswomen should be interviewed, and that they were content with the law as it now stands; so that in the summing up of the impression received by your agent, would state that out of the seven hundred saleswomen interviewed, only one was in favor of prolonging the working hours in December, two hundred and thirty-nine would be willing to try the work during the month of December if sufficient extra pay was given, and their health and strength would permit, and four hundred and sixty would not like to work even with extra pay.

## BULLETINS OF BUREAUS OF LABOR.

in March, 1902, but after six numbers were issued the Government decided to discontinue the publication.

As will be seen from the tabular statement which follows, the bulletins named reach nearly all classes of people, including workmen and employers, individually, as well as associations embracing both these classes, government officials, librarians, economists, and publicists.

Besides giving the States and countries publishing bulletins the following list states the official title, the name of the department issuing the publication and where issued, the first year of publication, how often published, and the classes among whom the publications circulate.

Year First Issued	How often Published	Average Number of Copies of Each Issue	Classes among whom the Publications circulate principally	
1897, 1898,	Bi-monthly,* No regular time,	2,000 -	Commercial, industrial, social, educational, and laboring classes,	1 2
1899, 1899,	Quarterly, Bi-monthly,	4,600 20,000	Workmen's societies, publicists, economists, and librarians, All classes,	3 4
1900, 1896, 1900, 1893,	Monthly, Monthly, Monthly, Monthly,	2,000 3,000 15,000† -	All classes, Employers, workpeople, associations, economists, and publicists, Members of labor organizations and employers, Peers, members of Parliament, associations, employers, and workmen,	5 6 7 8
1894,	Monthly,	4,300	Trade unions, workmen, employers, and societies,	9
1903,	Monthly,	9,300	Government officials, firms, courts, and employers, and workmen's associations.	10
1904,	Monthly,	2,000	All classes,	11
1901,	Quarterly,	2,000	Chambers of labor and trade unions,	12
1893,	Monthly,	2,000	Employers and workpeople and those interested in industrial and social matters.	13
1903, 1904,	Monthly, Monthly,	1,200 1,500	Labor and industrial classes, Labor, social, and industrial classes,	14 15
-	Quarterly,	-	All classes,	16

\* Quarterly to 1904.

† 3,500 in French.

‡ Varies with requirements.

## RECENT LEGAL LABOR DECISIONS.

*Assignment — Wages — Contract — Validity.* The Supreme Court of Illinois held, in the case of *Malin v. Wenham*, that an assignment of wages to be earned in the future under an existing contract was valid, and that the fact that the term of employment was not of definite duration was immaterial.

*Assignment — Wages — Prohibition.* The Supreme Court of Indiana held, in the recent case of *The International Text Book Company v. Wessinger*, that a statute prohibiting the assignment of future wages by employees was not void as an unreasonable restraint upon the liberty of the citizen or as depriving him of his property without due process of law.

*Arbitration — Award.* The Supreme Court of Kansas held in the recent case of *Fish v. Vermillion* (decided December 1, 1904), 78 Pac. 811, that where an agreement is made to submit a controversy to two arbitrators, they to select a third to act with them in case they cannot agree, an award made by the third or special arbitrator so selected and one of the others is binding upon the parties.

*Contempts — Injunction.* In the recent case of *Anderson et al. v. Indianapolis Drop Forging Co. et al.*, 72 N. E. 277, the Appellate Court of Indiana held that pickets for a labor union, although not made defendants in an injunction suit, are amenable to the injunction restraining the union, and all persons confederated or conspiring with it, from obstructing the business of plaintiff and its employees, where they have actual notice of such injunction.

*Master and Servant. — Duty of Inspection.* The Circuit Court of Appeals, Sixth Circuit, held in the recent case of *Illinois Central Railroad Co. v. Coughlin*, 132 Fed. 801, appealed from the Circuit Court of the United States for the Western District of Tennessee, that a railroad company, which adopts the customary and approved means or tests for the discovery of defects in its appliances, discharges its duty to its employees in that regard, and an injury which occurs to an employee, notwithstanding, must be accepted as resulting from one of the risks of the occupation.

*Half-holiday — Computing Time.* The Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia held, in the recent case of *Ocuppaugh v. Norton*, and another case, that under Section 1389 of the Code of District of Columbia, every Saturday after 12 o'clock noon being a half-holiday in the District for all purposes, one-half of each Saturday must be excluded in computing the time within which an appeal must be taken to the Court of Appeals from a decision of the Commissioner of Patents, under the rule requiring that such appeals shall be taken within 40 days from the date of the ruling or order appealed from, exclusive of Sundays and legal holidays.

*Employer's Liability — Negligence.* In the recent case of *Boyle v. Spaulding & Swett Corporation of Lowell, Massachusetts*, decided in the Superior Court at Lawrence, it was held that the plaintiff, in the employ of the Spaulding & Swett Corporation as Goodyear operator, was directed by superintendent to hold a pole for the purpose of preventing a belt from slipping off a pulley or shaft; superintendent was moving belt from one pole to another by means of a wooden device called a shipper; while plaintiff was holding pole as directed, and while exercising due care, superintendent carelessly handled said shipper so that it fell striking the plaintiff on the face and causing injury. Jury found for plaintiff.

*Distribution of Unfair Cards.* In the recent case of *Edson v. Brockton Central Labor Union*, Judge Richardson of the Massachusetts Superior Court refused to grant prayer of plaintiff, that Union be enjoined from interfering with persons desiring to trade with plaintiff and from any act tending to obstruct him in the transaction of his business. Plaintiff had refused to comply with request of the Label Committee of Union that he give up selling non-union cigars and tobacco, whereupon Committee distributed "unfair" cards in front of plaintiff's store.

*Employer's Liability — Negligence of Superintendent.* In the recent case of *McHugh v. Manhattan Railway Co.*, 72 N. E. 312, it appeared that plaintiff's decedent, when last seen, was about to make a coupling between a car and an engine; that no one saw him come out; that the coupling was made; and that his body was found at about the place where it was made. The Court of Appeals of New York held that where one, in the absence of the regular train dispatcher, had been accustomed for three years to perform his duties, his act in starting a train while plaintiff's decedent was coupling or attempting to withdraw to a place of safety was not a mere detail of work, under the employer's liability act (Laws 1902, p. 1748, c. 606, § 1), but that of a superintendent, for whose negligence the railway would be liable.

*Employer's Liability for Tort.* In the case of *Lesch v. Great Northern Railway*, recently decided by the Supreme Court of Minnesota, it appeared that two watchmen were employed by the defendant company to remain at its shops and yards to protect its property from being removed or purloined by trespassers, and were authorized to search for such property when taken away. Being informed that some ties had been removed to the home of the plaintiff, they went there, entered her house, rummaged the same, and generally conducted themselves in a brutal manner. The court held that the facts stated brought the case within the general rule that a master is responsible for the torts of his servants where committed with a

view to the furtherance of the master's business, whether the same be negligently or wilfully done.

*Employer's Liability—Failure to Guard Machinery.* The Appellate Court of Indiana held in the recent case of *Espenlaub et al. v. Ellis*, 72 N. E. 527, that in an action for injuries to a servant caused by a master's negligent act in leaving a saw unguarded, contrary to the provisions of the factory act (Burns' Ann. St. 1901, § 70871 et seq.) that plaintiff slipped on the floor, and thereby caught his hand in the unguarded machinery, did not relieve defendant from liability, or render his negligent act in leaving the machinery unguarded any less the proximate cause of the injury; that the master was liable for injuries to a servant caused by the disobedience of orders by a fellow servant requiring him to use a guard, where such disobedience was known to the superintendent and the disobedient servant was, nevertheless, continued in the master's employ.

*Employer's Liability—Workman's Risk.* The Supreme Court of Minnesota held, in the recent case of *McGinty v. Waterman et al.*, that in the operation of any factory, mill or workshop it is the duty of the master not only to furnish but to maintain as far as is practicable a guard or shield over or about all saws, planers, wood shapers, joiners, etc., and that such master is liable for damages resulting to a workman from a neglect so to do where the workman is not informed that such machine is unguarded or does not appreciate the risks of injury incident thereto. In the case before the court the party injured was an expert workman, and not only knew that a suitable device or shield had been furnished by the master for the purpose of guarding or covering such machinery, but also understood the risks incident to its use in an unguarded condition. The court held that under the circumstances he assumed all risk of injury if he neglected to attach the device so furnished.

*Employer's Liability—Negligence of Foreman.* In the recent case of *Murphy v. New York, New Haven and Hartford R.R. Co.*, 72 N. E. 330, it appeared that plaintiff was injured while transferring freight from one car to another by the misplacement of a "brow" used for that purpose. Defendant's foreman, on seeing one of the plaintiff's fellow servants about to reverse the brow, ordered him to let it alone, though the reversal would have averted the accident. Plaintiff was not present when brow was adjusted, and was called upon by his foreman, whose orders plaintiff was bound to obey, to enter the car with his truck and take a load to a connecting car, and was injured by the sliding of the brow as he was taking out his first truck load. The Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts held that plaintiff did not assume the risk of such injury as a matter of law, and that he had a right to presume that the brow had been properly placed.

*Constitutional Law—Limitation of the Hours of Labor.* In the recent case of *Broad v. Woydt*, Chief of Police, 78 Pac. 1004, the Supreme Court of Washington decided that a city ordinance making eight hours a day's work on any work of municipal construction, and declaring any contractor violating its provisions guilty of a misdemeanor, is not repugnant to the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, prohibiting the taking

of property without the due process of law, nor to similar provisions in the State Constitution. This decision is based upon *Atkins v. Kansas*,\* 24 Sup. Ct. 124, the Supreme Court of Washington holding that "inasmuch as this is a case which is susceptible of being appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States, and inasmuch as that tribunal has already passed squarely upon the question involved, in this case in favor of sustaining the judgment herein, this court feels it its duty to yield allegiance to the doctrine announced by the Supreme Court of the United States."

*Agreement—Closed Shop—Legality.* An agreement lately construed by the Appellate Division of the New York Supreme Court for the Second Department prohibited a firm from employing labor not belonging to a local union of the United Garment Workers of America, or from employing a member of the union unless he had a card signed by the business agent of the local Coat Tailors' and Pressers' Union. The agreement provided for a money penalty for its violation, to secure the payment of which the firm making the contract deposited with the president of the local union a promissory note. Upon the violation of the agreement the local union brought an action to collect the amount due on the note, but though it recovered judgment in the court below, the same was set aside by the Appellate Division. That court held that the contract set forth in the complaint was in restraint of trade, against public policy, and unlawful. It declared that any contract designed to prevent one set of men from obtaining work and depriving others of the opportunity to work was a violation of constitutional rights.

*Apprenticeship—Extra Hours.* The Supreme Court of Michigan held, in the case of *Bradley v. Perkins*, that the plaintiff, who was apprenticed to the defendant, was not guilty of wilful disobedience, or such refusal to work, as would authorize the defendant to discharge him or impose a penalty, when, on the foreman asking him to work extra hours at night, he told him that he did not want to work because it was cold, on account of which his feet were troubling him, and that he should take the work to some one nearer a stove, and the foreman said nothing further, but got another man to do the work. The court further held that where a contract of apprenticeship authorized the employer in case of breach thereof merely to discharge the apprentice and not to impose a penalty, the statement of the employer to the apprentice that he could leave or continue to work on an agreement to remain 30 days above the time provided in the contract amounted to a discharge which, not being warranted, justified him in leaving and suing for what would otherwise be due under the contract.

*Conspiracy—Coercion—Right of Interference.* In the recent case of *Longway v. Farrell et al.* it appeared that plaintiff was employed under an oral contract as an edgsetter in a large shoe factory; defendants, members of the Edgsetters' Union of Brockton, Massachusetts, threatened to strike the factory if plaintiff did not join the Union. Plaintiff made application for admission to the Union accompanied by the required fee of \$1, and was informed that his initiation fee would be \$500, because his record with the union was bad. Plaintiff was unable to pay this amount and company discharged him, since which time he has been unable to obtain

\* See Labor Bulletin No. 28, November, 1903.



employment at his trade. Judge Sherman of the Superior Court of Massachusetts said that a man has no right to interfere with a contract between parties by means of violence or intimidation, and that a man has a right to join or keep out of a union without coercion. Jury found for plaintiff.

*Employer's Liability—Negligence.* The Supreme Court of Indiana held, in the recent case of *The Knickerbocker Ice Company v. Gray*, that when an employer furnishes sound and safe machinery and a safe and sufficient room for the use and operation of the machinery, it is the duty of the employee using such machinery to remove from the floor such oil as naturally and unavoidably drips from the engine in operating it, and thereby to keep it so that men may safely work, and the employer is not rendered liable to other workmen by reason of their negligent failure to do so, and that an engineer who tries to start an engine without first making sure that it is not unsafe, by reason of the ordinary dangers which naturally result from its usual operation, such as accumulating ashes or dripping oil, is guilty of contributory negligence. The court further held that a certificate of the notary taking a deposition that the person who wrote the testimony was disinterested was not evidence of that fact; that a clerk or stenographer employed by the attorney for one of the parties was not disinterested and was not competent to write a deposition, and that cross-examination of the witness by the adverse party did not waive that objection.

*Employer's Liability—Negligence.* In the recent case of *Pratt v. New York, New Haven & Hartford R.R. Co.*, 72 N. E. 328, before the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts it appeared that plaintiff, an employee of a shipper, desiring to load a freight car standing on a grade siding at a small country station, was furnished by defendant's agent with a bar to move one of the cars to the place where it was to be loaded. While so engaged he was struck and injured by another car, which followed the car being moved down the grade without plaintiff's knowledge; there being at the time of the accident no other person in the neighborhood; the court held that the plaintiff was not guilty of contributory negligence, as a matter of law, in going between the rails, while pushing the car; and where a railroad company left a car at the top of a grade siding without setting the brakes thereon, and, if the brakes had been set, the car could not have been moved even with a bar, but, by reason of defendant's failure to set the brakes, the car was caused to move down the grade by the blowing of a high wind, and struck the servant of a shipper while moving another car down the grade, defendant was negligent, though the first car in the string was held on the grade by brakes.

*Employer's Liability—Defective Appliances.* The Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts held in the recent case of *Foster v. New York, New Haven & Hartford R.R. Co.*, 72 N. E. 331, that it is the duty of one employed by a railroad in the unloading of freight not to expose himself to unusual danger, but he may rely on the presumption that the railroad will not furnish defective appliances for him to use; that where such employee had to pass through a car of another railroad, in which he had not been before, and his attention was directed to a using board over which he had to pass, and which partially concealed a hole in the floor of the

strange car, he was not guilty of contributory negligence as a matter of law in failing to see the hole and injuring himself by contact therewith; that a car of another railroad, made use of by a railroad as a passway between a car of its own which is being unloaded and the freight depot is a part of the railroad's equipment, which it is required to use reasonable precautions to make safe; that where instrumentalities employed by a master are originally defective, or become unsafe from want of repair, the master cannot defend an action for injuries to a servant on the ground of the transitory character of such instrumentalities.

*Employer's Liability—Railroad.* In the case of *Johnson v. Southern Pacific Company* before the Supreme Court of the United States on certiorari from the District and Circuit Courts in Utah, it appeared that Johnson, head brakeman of a freight train on its regular trip from San Francisco, Cal., to Ogden, Utah, was at Promontory, Utah, directed to uncouple the engine from the train and couple it to a dining car to place the latter in a position to be picked up by the next west-bound passenger train. The engine and dining car were equipped with different automatic couplers and would not couple by impact, and Johnson was obliged to go between the engine and the car. His hand was caught between the bumpers and crushed, necessitating its amputation. The Circuit Court held that the locomotive and car were both equipped as required by Act of Congress entitled "An act to promote the safety of employees and travelers upon railroads by compelling common carriers engaged in interstate commerce to equip their cars with automatic couplers and continuous brakes, and their locomotives with driving wheel brakes, and for other purposes;" that the word "car" did not apply to locomotives; that at the time of accident the dining car was not "used in moving interstate traffic;" that locomotive and dining car were equipped with automatic couplers. Chief Justice Fuller held that these conclusions appeared to be inconsistent with the plain intentions of Congress, to defeat the object of legislation, and to be arrived at by an inadmissible narrowness of construction. The intention of Congress was to require railroads to equip their cars with couplers that would couple automatically by impact, without the necessity of men going between the ends of the cars. Tested by context, subject matter, and object "any car" means all kinds of cars running on the rails, including locomotives. Both locomotive and dining car had automatic couplers but which would not work together, and the law was not complied with. Again, this dining car was under the control of Congress while making its interstate journey, and was equally so when waiting for the train to be made up for the next trip. Judgment was reversed and a new trial awarded.

*Eight-hour Law of New York Unconstitutional.* In the recent case of *People ex rel. Cossey v. Grout, Comptroller*, 72 N. E. 464, it appears that the comptroller of the city of New York refused to pay for certain sewers constructed and delivered by a municipal contractor, and accepted by the city, on the sole ground that contractor had permitted his workmen to work more than eight hours a day in the absence of any extraordinary emergency, in violation of Chap. 415, Laws of 1897, as amended, known as the "Labor Law." The Court of Appeals of New York reversed the decision of the lower courts which found for the city.

Chief Judge Cullen in his conclusion said that the validity of the so-called labor legislation recently enacted in many of the States has been the subject of much litigation both in the State and in the federal courts, and that the wise course is to adhere strictly to the decision actually made by this court without further examination of the general questions involved. In the *Rodgers* case, 59 N. E. 716, the contractor had failed to pay the prevailing rate of wages; here the contractor permitted labor in excess of eight hours. This difference of circumstances would not justify a distinction in principle, and therefore the decision in the *Rodgers* case must control the disposition of the present case, unless overthrown by subsequent cases in this court or in the Supreme Court of the United States. The prevailing opinion in the *Rodgers* case proceeded on two grounds: (1) That the labor law invaded the constitutional rights of the municipality; (2) that it invaded the constitutional rights of the contractor by depriving him of his liberty to contract with his employees and in confiscating the stipulated price of his work in case he failed to comply with its provisions. The first ground is not determined by the case of *Atkins v. Kansas*, 24 Sup. Ct. 124, decided by the Supreme Court of the United States.\* The second ground is entirely swept away by this decision, however, because it is pointed out that no man has any right to contract with the public except upon such terms and conditions as the State chooses to prescribe; and, so far as the confiscation of his property, the contract price is concerned, he never acquires any right to such payment except on the performance of the terms of his contract. The decision about to be made can, therefore, stand only on one ground, the unconstitutional interfer-

ence of the legislature with the right of the municipality.

Judge O'Brien said that the *Kansas* case did not sweep away what was held in the *Rodgers* case, that the statute in question violated the Constitution of the State in that it deprives the contractor of his property without due process of law. There is a wide difference between the *Kansas* statute and our own—the former simply punishes the contractor for a specific act or omission, while the latter deprives him of all property rights under his contract. The *Kansas* case decides nothing except the single proposition that the defendant in the case, having voluntarily entered into the contract, was not deprived of his personal liberty by the statute. This statute punishes an act or omission as a crime while our statute attempts to confiscate property. The fallacy of the argument that the *Kansas* case annuls our *Rodgers* decision consists in the assumption that because the court held that the *Kansas* statute does not unduly interfere with personal liberty, it therefore held that our statute does not invade the rights of private property. He also said in referring to the eight-hour clause in the Labor Law that a breach of contract can never be urged as a cause of action or defense, unless the breach is of some stipulation that is material considering the subject matter of the contract.

Judge Haight, in dissenting, says that this case differs from the *Rodgers* case in that it refers to hours rather than wages, and that the power of the legislature to enact laws based upon considerations of public policy or for the protection and preservation of the health of the people is beyond question. Neither of these questions were raised or determined by the *Rodgers* case.

## INDUSTRIAL AGREEMENTS.

As the presentation of joint trade agreements, which was begun in Labor Bulletin No. 28, November, 1903, has met with general favor among both employers and employees, the Bureau will continue its consideration of the subject in 1905.

### Boston.

#### SIGN WRITERS.

Master Sign Painters and Sign Writers No. 391 of Boston and Vicinity.

1. To employ none but union workmen.
2. That eight hours shall constitute a day's labor, one quarter day being the smallest fraction thereof.
3. That \$3 a day shall be the minimum wage for journeymen.
4. That \$2 a day shall be the minimum wage for helpers; a helper shall be one who assists a sign or pictorial painter, and he may do any other such labor pertaining to sign painting, but he must not do any laying-out, lettering, cutting-in, or pictorial work. When a helper has attained the necessary proficiency at the discretion of a Shop Steward, he

shall be given 15 days' trial. If at the end of 15 days he is found incapable, he is not eligible for a similar trial in the same shop for a period of one year.

5. That time and one-half shall be paid for all overtime, meaning time between the hours of 5 P.M. and 8 A.M., and double time for Sundays and holidays; no work to be required of Sign Writers No. 391 on Labor Day.

6. Members sent out of the city to work shall receive their regular wages and expenses.

7. Sub-contracting by Master Sign Painters to members of this Union is prohibited.

8. Each sign shop shall be allowed one apprentice, and one apprentice for every four journeymen; this shall not apply to show card departments.

9. Show card departments shall employ not more

\* See Labor Bulletin No. 28, November, 1903.

than one filler-in for each journeyman; their work is to consist of everything pertaining to showcard work, except laying-out and lettering; they shall be under the supervision of the Shop Steward.

10. Traveling nights and Sundays shall be paid at the rate of single time.

11. There shall be a Shop Steward to look after each particular shop and see that it conforms with all the rules and regulations of this Union; a non-union man shall not be put to work without the consent of the Shop Steward.

Sign Writers No. 391, in consideration of the agreements of the employers, agrees to faithfully adhere to the conditions of the foregoing, to furnish the best services available, and to foster and protect the interests of the employers, wherever, and by all honorable means possible, to furnish to the employers the use of the labels of Sign Writers No. 391, whenever requested, and to co-operate with the employers for the general improvement of the business.

The employers, in consideration of being permitted the use of the Union Labels of the Brotherhood of Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers of America, agree to abide by the rules and regulations herein mentioned, and further agree to peaceably return to the officers of Sign Writers No. 391 all labels of said Brotherhood, at any time a demand is made for the same.

This agreement shall be in effect from January 1, 1905, to April 1, 1906.

#### TEAMSTERS.

International Brotherhood of Teamsters and Helpers, Local 25, and the Master Teamsters Association.

1. That 11 hours in 12, from 6 A.M. to 6 P.M. shall constitute a working-day. Said time shall commence from time of reporting at stable till time of dismissal at night. One hour, on or as near the usual hour, 12 to 1, as possible be allowed for dinner.

2. All time over and above said time shall be paid for at the rate of 25 cents an hour, or fractional part thereof, except Sundays and legal holidays, which shall be paid for at the rate of double time. (It is understood that men shall care for horses on the mornings of Sundays and holidays and pile sleds on one holiday without extra pay, and that in no case shall the payment for a holiday be deducted. If a man is called upon to work on a holiday, he shall be paid 25 cents an hour additional.)

3. The holidays recognized in this agreement are as follows: Washington's Birthday, Patriots' Day, June 17th, Memorial Day, July 4th, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas. Under no circumstances shall any member of the organization be required to work on Labor Day. The days herein named shall not be deducted from the regular weekly wages.

4. All outside lumpers shall receive 40 cents an hour, and all time over and above said 11 hours shall be paid for at the rate of time and a half, i.e. 60 cents, fractional parts of an hour to be paid for at the rate of one hour.

5. Regular lumpers shall receive not less than \$14 a working week. Laborers shall receive \$12 a week. A lumper is one who takes responsibility and directs operations; a laborer, one who has no responsibility and only uses physical energy.

6. The minimum rate of wages a week for drivers shall be as follows:

1-horse light wagons, . . . . .	\$11
1-horse heavy wagons, . . . . .	12
2-horse wagons, . . . . .	14
3-horse teams, . . . . .	15
4-horse teams, . . . . .	16
5-horse teams, . . . . .	17
6-horse teams, . . . . .	18

A substitute shall receive the same pay as the man whose place he fills.

7. In hiring teamsters in the future, members of the Team Drivers International Union shall be given the preference, and one member of the organization in each stable shall be allowed to act as representative of the organization, without discrimination.

8. Any violation of this agreement shall be referred to the Arbitration Committee of the body to which the aggrieved party or parties belong; this Committee to notify, in writing, the corresponding committee of the other body; this Joint Committee to meet and confer looking to an amicable adjustment of the difficulty. Pending such conference, any person or persons acting independently shall forfeit the sanction and assistance of either body.

A strike shall not be considered except as herein named. A strike ordered by the International Brotherhood of Teamsters shall not be an annulment of this agreement, or a violation of the contract.

Should a strike be ordered by the I. B. of T. as above, and a settlement and termination be not agreed to by both parties, the question shall be submitted to a committee of employers and employees, and a third party to be chosen by the employers and employees.

This Agreement shall take effect January 10, 1905, and continue in force for one year, until January 10, 1906.

#### PRINTING EMPLOYEES.

Boston Typotheta and Typographical No. 13.

SCALE OF WAGES FOR BOOK AND JOB COMPOSITORS.

	Piece Work.	Per 1000 ems
1. Common matter on the galley, in the English language, Pica to Agate, inclusive, . . . . .		\$0.38
2. <i>Extras.</i>		
3. Common matter in the English language in Pearl, . . . . .		.10
4. Common matter in the English language in Diamond, . . . . .		.20
5. Latin, French, Spanish, or Italian, . . . . .		.10
6. German, Welsh, Indian, etc., . . . . .		.20
7. English Dictionaries, Concordances, or works of a similar description, where figures, points, capitals, italics, superior letters, or references are freely used, . . . . .		.20
8. Dictionaries in Latin, French, Spanish, or Italian, . . . . .		.30
9. Dictionaries in German, Welsh, Indian, etc., . . . . .		.40
10. Arithmetical work, Grammars, Spelling Books, etc., . . . . .		.20
11. Works which contain a profusion of algebraic, medical, astronomical, or other signs, and all exceptional works not otherwise provided for, shall be paid for at a rate (to be agreed upon by the employer and employed).		



12. Hebrew without points, . . . . .	\$0.30
13. Hebrew with points, the body and the points to be cast up each according to size, . . . . .	.40
14. Greek, . . . . .	.40
15. When measure is not over 16 ems and is over 12 ems of type set, . . . . .	.05
16. When measure is 12 and not under 10 ems type set, . . . . .	.10
17. When measure is under 10, . . . . .	.20

18. (Column matter, as distinguished from Tabular and Table, is matter made up continuously in two or more columns not dependent upon each other for their arrangement, and shall be paid for in accordance with the following sections:)

19. Three columns, in pages 21 ems Pica or less wide, one-fourth more than common matter.

20. Four columns, in octavo and smaller size, in pages 24 ems Pica and less wide, one-half more than common matter.

21. Five columns, in pages of 30 ems and over, in folio and quarto, one-half more than common matter; in octavo and smaller, double price.

22. (Tabular and Table work is matter set up in three or more columns, depending upon each other, and reading across the page:)

23. Three columns of figures or words, with or without rules, one-half extra. This does not apply to matter where the footings are brought out to the side and added to in another column.

24. Four or more columns of figures or words, with or without rules, double price.

25. All tables set in foreign languages shall be paid as once foreign and once English matter.

26. Short pages, in a series of tables, to be charged as full-page tables.

27. In casting up table pages, headings and foot-notes are to be reckoned in the square of the page; but if the note or notes extend beyond the page, the remainder of the notes to be charged as common matter.

28. All work done in Pica or larger type to count as Pica.

29. Greek words occurring in English works to be charged one cent per word; if justified in, two cents; Hebrew or Saxon words, two cents; if justified in, three cents; with points, four cents.

30. All column cuts shall be placed by the compositor, or space allowed for same, and measured. Justification to be paid five cents extra for each cut.

31. Side notes to be counted the full length of the page (including the lead or rule, which shall count at least one em), according to the type in which they are set, and charged a price and a half. Cut-in notes in all works to be charged five cents extra each note, and the whole page to be counted as text.

32. Contents of chapters, and insertions in a smaller type than the text, shall be measured half the blank above and below; foot-notes, half the blank above and the blank line at the bottom of the page.

33. If the compositor be required to set up leaded matter without the leads, the time afterward occupied in leading it out shall be charged to the office, and the matter measured as if he had originally put in the leads.

34. Works with sub-head lines, running titles, etc., supplied by the proof-reader, to be considered as authors' corrections and paid for accordingly.

35. In contents, indexes, or other copy where more than the usual quantity of figures, points, and italics are used, the establishment shall furnish the compositor with all necessary sorts.

36. When a measure exceeds even ems in width, and is less than an en, not to be counted; but if an en or more, an en is to be counted.

37. Compositors shall correct one proof according to copy, and revise thereof.

38. Where weekly and piece hands are employed on the same work, copy to be given out in the regular order of the folios.

NOTE.—This rule is to avoid the culling of tables and other fat matter.

39. Piece hands called on to work after regular scheduled hours of labor shall be paid price and a half for all matter set, or 15 cents an hour in addition to regular price per 1,000.

40. When a compositor is required to turn for sorts, or to take out bad letters and replace them, in consequence of faults in the foundry, miscasts or worn-out fonts, he shall be paid at the rate of 35 cents an hour for so doing.

41. In all offices where full cases are furnished to compositors nine cents per 1,000 ems only shall be deducted.

42. Running titles, set in smaller type than the body of the work, with the folio justified in, shall be charged one cent extra per line.

43. Compositors on piece work, unless retained for three full days consecutively, to be paid five cents per 1,000 extra.

44. Newspapers, etc., printed in book offices, to be paid for according to the book scale.

45. All centre notes, where justification is required, shall be charged two cents extra.

#### *Time Work by Piece Hands.*

(Time work (when performed during the regular hours of labor) shall be paid for at the rate of 35 cents an hour; and all work of the following character shall be done on time, or at a price to be agreed upon by the employer and employed:)

1. Works on Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, etc., where cuts are inserted in the matter which cause over-running in the making up, and where questions are appended at the bottom of the page.

2. The time employed in making up furniture, etc.

3. Final corrections on foundry and press proofs, changing imperfect letters, etc.

4. Authors' proofs and alterations from copy, as well as alterations on second proofs—such alterations to be circled.

5. Small isolated tables occurring in works of a narrow measure, as in double-column octavos.

6. All work done after the regular hours of labor shall be paid for at the rate of time and one-half; after 12 o'clock until 7 A.M., double time.

7. All work done on Sundays and legal holidays shall be paid for at the rate of double time for day, and 80 cents an hour for night work.

8. All disputes to be settled by chairman and employer, or his representative; but if no agreement can be arrived at by them, to be referred to the Board of Arbitration as hereinafter provided.

9. In all time work, for authors' proofs and the like, every fraction of an hour less than 15 minutes to be charged as 15 minutes by the compositor.

#### *Time Work by Time Hands.*

1. Compositors employed by the week shall receive not less than \$17 a week of 54 hours, begin-

ning March 14, 1904, and not less than \$18 a week beginning February 1, 1905.

2. When paid by the hour, the price shall be 35 cents an hour for less than three days' work.

3. All work done after regular hours of labor shall be paid for at the rate of time and one-half. After 12 o'clock until 7 A.M., double time. All Sunday and holiday work shall be paid for at the rate of double time for day and 80 cents per hour for night work.

4. Compositors working one or more hours overtime shall be granted half an hour for supper, such half hour to be paid for as overtime.

#### *Linotype Machine Work.*

1. Operators employed on linotype machines shall receive not less than \$19 a week beginning March 14, 1904, and not less than \$20 a week, beginning February 1, 1905. Operators called off machines to perform other work shall receive machine rates, when such services are for less than one week.

2. Compositors taken from case to learn the operation of machines shall receive not less than \$12 per week for eight weeks, while so learning, at the expiration of which time they shall receive full rates.

3. In all machine offices where operators are employed three days, or less, in any one week, they shall receive not less than 50 cents per hour for services rendered.

4. Overtime shall be paid for at the rate of time and one-half. Sundays and legal holidays, at the rate of double time.

5. It is understood that the hours for operators on linotype machines shall be the same as prevailed prior to February 1, 1904: Provided that in cases where the hours for machine operators have been decreased since the date mentioned this paragraph shall not be held to increase the hours.

The members of the Typothetæ agree to pay to the members of Typographical No. 13 employed by them wages at the said scale.

Typographical No. 13 promises and agrees to work for and accept wages at the said scale, and to make no demand for increase of wages or changes in the hours of employment, or any other demand whatsoever, upon the Typothetæ during the term of this agreement.

A Board of Arbitration shall be created under this agreement to consist of three members from the Typothetæ and three members from Typographical No. 13, who shall each have plenary powers over Typographical No. 13 and plenary powers over the Typothetæ. Such Board of Arbitration shall have power to adjust, settle, and regulate all differences arising under this agreement between the parties to this agreement. Said Board of Arbitration shall settle all questions coming before it on a fair and common-sense basis. Should they be unable to determine any question, they shall have power to call in an impartial arbitrator, whose decision shall be final. No question submitted to this Board for settlement shall be considered under 15 days unless by the unanimous consent of the Board. All questions submitted to this Board must be in writing, and may be handed to any member of the Board, whose duty shall be to immediately convey notice to each of the other members.

This agreement to be in effect from March 14, 1904, to February 1, 1906.

## **Brockton.**

### **PRINTING EMPLOYEES.**

#### **Master Printers and Typographical No. 224.**

1. The minimum price for a day's work shall be \$2.75 a day of nine hours, said hours to be between 7 A.M. and 6 P.M.

2. Overtime shall be paid for at rate of price and one-half. All work after midnight to be double price.

3. All work done on Sunday, and Patriots' Day, Memorial Day, July 4th, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas to be paid for at double price.

4. Where a compositor is called in to work temporarily, he shall be given at least one day's work or pay for same.

5. The shortening of the hours of regularly employed members shall not be caused by the employment of surplus help.

6. When, through the exigencies of business, it becomes necessary to decrease force, the last member employed shall be the first discharged.

7. Operators on type-setting devices to be paid at a minimum rate of \$3 a day of eight hours.

8. Compositors employed on presses, or pressesmen, or any other affiliated members as compositors, shall be paid not less than \$2.75 a day of nine hours.

9. In offices where Saturday half-holiday is observed, 54 hours shall constitute a week's work, not more than 10 hours in any one day, said hours to be designated by the office and mutually agreed upon by the members of the Chapel; provided, that all hours in excess of said designated hours be considered as overtime.

10. When, through exigencies of business, in an office where Saturday half-holiday is observed, lost time, or part of week only is worked, said time is to be deducted at pro rata an hour, for such time as is actually lost, provided said lost time occurs between 7 A.M. and 6 P.M.

11. Foremen shall be paid at the rate of not less than \$3 a day; provided, that in offices where owners act as foremen, and are members of this Union, they shall be considered as receiving said sum.

12. All boys employed shall be recognized apprentices, not to include copy holders or errand boys.

13. Apprentices shall serve four years at the trade, at the end of which time they shall be classed as journeymen and receive journeymen's wages. During the entire last year of their apprenticeship they shall be instructed in all the intricate work done in the office where they are employed, such as setting of reprint and manuscript copy. But one apprentice shall be allowed for every six journeymen, or fraction thereof. Apprentices shall receive two-thirds of the prevailing wages for the last 12 months of their apprenticeship.

14. The arbitration agreement of the I. T. U. shall govern in all cases of dispute.

The Master Printers bind themselves to employ only members of Typographical No. 224, and to respect and observe the constitution, by-laws, and scale of prices of the Union.

This agreement to be in effect from January 1, 1905, to January 1, 1906.

### **CLOTHING AND SHOE CLERKS.**

Retail Clerks International Protective Association, Clothing and Shoe Clerks No. 504, and Employers.

The union, in consideration of the agreement of employers, give to employers, for a period of one year, a Union Store Card.

Employers agree to retain in their employ only members of Local No. 504, or those persons who, if eligible, will become members within 30 days from date of their employment.

Employers agree to close their stores at the following time: All day on Sundays and all legal holidays; Thursday and Friday afternoons of the Brockton Fair shall be given to the clerks and it will be at the option of the employers whether the stores close the week of the Brockton Fair or not; at 12 M., commencing on the first Tuesday in July

and ending with the last Tuesday in September; at 6 P.M. on Mondays, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Fridays; at 9.30 P.M. on Wednesdays, and at 10.30 P.M. on Saturdays. Stores shall be open the usual time before Christmas.

Both parties agree that the interests of each shall be mutually taken care of and advanced, and that any violation of the foregoing stipulation shall be sufficient cause for surrender of the Union Store Card.

This agreement goes into effect January 1, 1905, to remain in force for one year.

## EXCERPTS

### Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest.

#### Labor Digest from Governor's Message.

##### *Labor Legislation.*

In no Commonwealth of the Union is such a large proportion of the people engaged in industrial pursuits as here in Massachusetts. Upon the intelligence, skill, and willingness of the workers depends the supremacy of our manufactures in the markets of the world. Massachusetts in many enlightened labor measures has been the leader of the States; and while much has been accomplished, there yet remains more to do. The fear of changed or changing conditions should not turn us from that broad and humane view that the laborer is indeed not only worthy of his hire, but is entitled to the leisure, the opportunity, and the necessary income to provide for the present and future necessities of himself and family, to elevate himself by education into an employer, and by fitness become the instrument to lessen the burden of the ever on-coming tolling masses.

We are unwilling that our intelligent workers should be subjected to the uncontrollable conditions of less progressive States than Massachusetts. Our working people should not be forced to meet these conditions by lowering their standards of living. Therefore it behooves this General Court to encourage any and all measures tending to promote a higher or better grade of manufactures within the Commonwealth, to the end that the skill of Massachusetts artisans may be utilized to its fullest extent, and not brought into open competition with the crude product of mills and factories of other States where public sentiment has not been sufficiently aroused to prevent the debasement of those who toil.

The movement for the shorter workday is progressing. Most of the cities and towns of the State are on record as favoring and practicing it; but, singularly, the Commonwealth itself has been backward in adopting such legislation as would place our State in line on this question.

From the mills, factories and workshops in all sections of the Commonwealth there comes an appeal that should not go unheeded. It is the petition of the women and minors for the enactment of a law prohibiting the overtime work in factories and mills after a reasonable hour. To such a measure, framed with due regard for all concerned, I commend your earnest consideration.

Another matter deserving more careful study is the hygienic conditions of our mills and factories. All the necessities for the promotion of good health should be ever present, to enable the worker to labor with best result. The matter of proper ventilation, light, and toilet facilities should receive careful study from you.

I also wish to urge upon you the necessity for doing what is possible to secure the enactment by other States of laws similar to those of Massachusetts concerning child labor and the employment of women.

It is because Massachusetts has been foremost of all States in the enactment of laws for the welfare of its workers that she is a leader among the manufacturing Commonwealths. To continue in this course is the duty of you, gentlemen, to whom the electorate has committed the destiny of Massachusetts.

##### *Conciliation and Arbitration.*

In the enactment of laws, the creation of the necessary board for their execution and the adoption of the principle by those who work and those who pay, Massachusetts leads all States of the Union in conciliation and arbitration of industrial disputes. It is one of the hopeful signs of the times that the demoralizing strike is of less frequent occurrence in our Commonwealth. Industrial peace has reigned almost supreme in those manufacturing centres where this golden rule of commercial conduct has been adopted. Against the old method of strikes stands out this safe and sane method of conciliation and arbitration. By its adoption differences between the employer and employee have been lessened. Its practical effects are evidenced in those communities where the wheels of industry revolve steadily and the full-pay envelope comes along regularly while differences of opinion are being settled by reason rather than might.

The conciliation branch of the work, which includes trade agreements, the adjusting and composing of difficulties before they reach the acute stage, is as important as the Board's other function of arbitration.

The benefits of conciliation and arbitration to the community, the worker and the employer are not as well understood as they should be for the welfare of the Commonwealth, and I trust the General



Court may devise some method to educate those most vitally interested in the subject to a better understanding of the wisdom of submitting grievances to an impartial board of arbiters; also that you, gentlemen, will favor such legislation as tends to promote the better working of the system already established in the State.

The work of the Board can with advantage be extended to include the authority to appoint at its discretion persons whose duty it shall be to make examination and investigation of industrial conditions in localities within the Commonwealth, as directed by the Board, to the end that the Board may be seasonably informed of matters which may grow into misunderstandings before such shall become controversies, and ultimately, perchance, result in strikes or lockouts, thus disturbing the industrial peace of the Commonwealth. — *Address of His Excellency, William L. Douglas, to the Two Branches of the Legislature of Massachusetts, Jan. 5, 1905.*

### Trade School for Girls, Boston.

The Trade School for Girls was opened at 674 Massachusetts Avenue, Boston, on July 8, 1904. The school was started as an experiment by several representative and philanthropic women of Boston who were interested in the education of girls in trades, in order that they might become more than unskilled workers. Investigations have shown that girls, upon graduation from grammar schools, and upon reaching the age when no longer required by law to attend school, are utterly unfitted for anything but unskilled work. This school was established to furnish, free of charge, a thorough training in plain sewing, embroidery and fancy collar making, dressmaking, millinery, and electric power machine operating, so that upon the completion of any of these courses the girl might find employment at an adequate living wage. Instruction is also given in design and color work, and in gymnastics and personal hygiene.

The trade school was started on a basis approximating, as near as possible, actual business. The hours are from 8.30 A.M. to 5 P.M. with an hour for lunch. Strict work-room discipline is maintained. The instructors are skilled in their trades, having had several years experience in actual business and are paid large salaries. All work done in the school is ordered and hence must be done with the same care and thoroughness as in a business shop.

Business responsibility is also taught, it having been shown that these girls have absolutely no ideas of business methods, the handling of money, responsibility, or application.

The school has been most successful. There have been about 120 applicants, and there are now 52 in attendance, the maximum accommodation. Four or five girls, who, though not having completed the course, have shown special aptitude, have been placed in situations and have been rapidly advanced.

During the course the girls are sent for a two weeks' trial to some shop, and employers have been requested to fill out blanks showing their opinions of the girls' work. These employers' letters have on the surface been discouraging, the reasons, perhaps, being obvious, but repeated calls have been received from these firms and others since the girls were sent out, showing that the girls really were competent and that there is a demand for them.

Half-hour talks are held each morning and these have proved most beneficial. A lunch room has been opened, and while the girls bring their own

luncheons, committees are elected to take charge of the room, tables, and dishes.

The cost of maintenance has been \$8,000.

The only requirements for admission are that the applicant (1) must be between 14 and 17 years of age; (2) must signify her intention of becoming self-supporting; (3) must show an earnestness of purpose.

### Child Labor in Maine.

In this State the child labor feature is relatively small and shows but little, if any, upward tendency. Its percentage of child labor is next to the lowest in the country. . . . The law, as at present framed, is capable of being more effectually used to protect illegal child labor in the mills than to prevent it. The vital point on which the whole problem should turn would be a sworn official copy of the birth record of every child employed. With this made conclusive the rest would be easy; without it, as now, the inspection official is well-nigh powerless to act. Now everything depends upon the honesty of parents. When, through anxiety to secure places for their children, they do not hesitate to falsify the records, it becomes the duty of the State to check a practice so misleading and vicious. Give me a law with teeth in it, and the fault will be mine if results do not follow. . . . There is no danger that legislation on this subject will be too radical. The plea that child labor is right because parents need the pay for their work is quite as superficial as is the plea that stealing is right when the thief is in need of his plunder. — *Annual Report of Inspector of Factories, Workshops, Mines, and Quarries, Hon. Chas. E. Atwood, Biddeford, Maine.*

### Child Labor in Connecticut.

The statistics gathered during the last 10 years show the changing conditions and steady improvement in child labor employment. The laws passed by the General Assemblies of 1895, 1901, and 1903 have produced conditions just alike to children and employers.

Parents do not misrepresent the age of children and employers do not accept false statements to-day for two reasons: (1) The law protects the child, and (2) the growth of sound public sentiment.

The advance from the position in 1895, when the legislature prohibited a child under 14 to be employed in any mechanical, mercantile, or manufacturing establishment, to the act passed in 1903, which prohibits the employment of any child under 16 should the education of that child be deemed insufficient by the proper authorities, has been most important and gratifying. It is bringing about desirable conditions both for schools and laborers and meeting the requirements of the children, for whom it was necessary. There is no doubt that a reasonable education was intended to be secured to each child by the earlier law-makers, but unscrupulous employers and parents indifferent to the advantages of children formed a combination against the child which made it difficult for the enforcing officer to carry out the intent of the law.

The law of 1901 has caused employers some trouble by annulling all parents' certificates of age and requiring [Sections 4705 and 4706 Gen. Stat.] that

"Every person or corporation employing a child under 16 years of age in any mechanical, mercantile, or manufacturing establishment shall obtain a certificate showing that the child is over 14 years of age. Such certificate shall be signed by the regis-

trar of births, marriages, and deaths, or by the town clerk of the town where there is a public record of the birth of the child, or by a teacher of the school which the child last attended, or by the person having custody of the register of said school.

"... Every employer or other person having control of any establishment or premises where children under 16 years of age are employed, who shall neglect to keep on file the certificates described in this section or to show the same, with a list of the names of such children so employed, . . . shall be fined not more than one hundred dollars."

With but few exceptions these requirements have been met and the law complied with. A better sentiment prevails; this is evinced by the increasing number of requests for information and the cases submitted to the agent for advice. This was also shown during the taking of intelligence of the children between 14 and 16; the factory managers willingly gave the agent all requisite aid.—*School Attendance and Child Labor, State Board of Education, Connecticut, 1904.*

#### **Platform on Labor Problems.**

1. The right of every person to work upon such terms and conditions as may be acceptable to him is fundamental and cannot be abridged without loss of liberty.

2. Loyalty to fair employers should be rewarded by loyalty to fair employees.

3. Sound business management requires that preference be given in employment and promotion to good character, good work, and length of service.

4. Merit unions should be promoted for the purpose of securing better conditions and fair wages by reason of the merit of services rendered instead of by fear of injuries possible to be inflicted by strikes and boycotts. Shops closed to non-union men by reason of preference for members of merit unions will be closed without violating any moral, economic, or statute law.

5. Trade agreements should be made only with unions whose membership cards are certificates of good character, good work, a full equivalent rendered for wages received and an intelligent regard for the employer's interests.

6. The prompt, impartial, and complete enforcement of all laws for the protection of the right of every person to dispose of his power to labor and to operate his business in the way approved by his own judgment, subject only to the police powers of the State, is vitally necessary for the protection of fundamental liberties.

7. Peaceable settlement of disputes between employers and employees through self-respecting conferences between the parties directly interested, either individually or through authorized and responsible representatives, and on a basis of mutual recognition of the lawful status of each, is essential to industrial stability and hence to the best welfare of the community.

8. Uniformity in State legislation regulating workshop conditions, hours of employment, etc., to the end that employment in no State shall be placed at a disadvantage in competition with employment in any other State by reason of dissimilar standards and regulations, is fundamentally necessary for the promotion of national prosperity. This proposition must also be given a world-wide application. In this age of steam and electricity international competitive conditions must be considered when-

ever industrial measures are proposed for enactment.

9. In the interests of the physical development of the race, and of public education, childhood must be protected and the employment of children in commerce and manufactures should be carefully restricted; all night work for children and the employment of children who cannot read and write in the English language should be prohibited.—*Public Policy, Chicago, Ill., Feb. 11, 1905.*

#### **British Institute of Social Service.**

The British Institute of Social Service was organized July 8, 1904, on the lines of the American Institute in New York. The Earl of Meath is the President of the British Institute. The promoters include prominent men in Parliament, Bishops, members of the nobility, and those long identified in philanthropic work. The object of the Institute is to promote social and industrial betterment by gathering together all materials touching upon same, by interpreting facts relating to social conditions and by disseminating the resulting knowledge, thus enabling those who are trying to help humanity to profit by the experience of others.

#### **Medical Congress on Labor Accidents.**

The Medical Congress on Labor Accidents of Belgium will be held at Liège from May 29 to June 4, 1905. The Congress will open at the time when the Belgian law on reparation for damages resulting from labor accidents goes into effect. At this time, also, at the Universal Exposition at Liège, the great industrial countries will show the results of the application of their laws pertaining to this matter, as well as the progress made in the prevention of accidents. It is the intention of the committee to bring together in the International Congress doctors, and all persons who, by their special duties, are called upon to assist in executing laws relative to labor accidents, and to organize first aid to the injured. The following subjects will be submitted to the Assembly for general discussion:

1. Study of wounds and post-traumatic affections.

2. Organization of first aid to the injured, and especially to victims of labor accidents in industrial centres and large cities.

3. Uniformity and centralization of medical statistics.

4. Medical examination in labor accidents.

An appeal is made by the Society to doctors, economists, manufacturers, and all specialists to collaborate with and show their interest in the multiple and complex problems which the program of the Congress presents.

#### **Special Tax on Department Stores in Germany.**

The Chemnitz Chamber of Commerce expresses the opinion in its annual report that the special tax levied on department stores in 1900, and collected regularly since then, has failed completely of its purpose, the stores having simply shifted the burden of the tax from themselves to the shoulders of the manufacturers from whom they draw their supplies. In this manner they defeat entirely the intentions of the tax by making still more irksome the existence of the manufacturing classes, who already are suffering severely under the present régime of socialistic legislation. The small retailer



reports that no improvement in his position has occurred, and the tax has thus far left no perceptible trace of an influence for the better.—J. F. Monaghan, Consul, Chemnitz, Germany.

#### Commercial Courts in Germany.

The necessity of having special commercial courts in Germany similar to the industrial courts already in existence has for some time been urged by German merchants and their employees. As a result of their efforts a law was passed July 6, 1904, making the institution of commercial courts obligatory in all cities having, according to the latest census, more than 20,000 inhabitants, and providing for the establishment of such courts for smaller communities or groups of communities if desired.

Article one of the law states the purpose of these commercial courts to be the settlement of disputes between merchants and their clerks or apprentices. The courts are designed to furnish simpler and more expeditious procedure in the settlement of difficulties than is possible in ordinary civil courts. Clerks and apprentices in pharmacies as well as any clerks receiving a yearly salary of 5,000 marks (\$1,190) or more do not fall within the jurisdiction of this law. The commercial courts are to have jurisdiction, however, over all strikes or disputes, without regard to the amount of money involved, arising from any of the following causes: Questions relating to the acceptance or dissolution of contracts for services or apprenticeship, or pertaining in any way to such contracts; demands for indemnity or payment of fines on account of failure to fulfil contract; matters pertaining to sickness insurance for employees; agreements limiting the amount of work done by employees. Each commercial court shall have a president, one or more vice-presidents, and at least four associates, elected half from employers who have at least one clerk or apprentice, and half from the employees; the president and vice-presidents must be persons eligible to become judges or to hold high administrative offices and neither merchants nor commercial employees. Members of the commercial courts must be at least 30 years of age and must not have received public aid either for themselves or their families in the year preceding election, or must have made restitution for any such aid received; they must be in full possession of their civil and political rights. Foreigners and women are not eligible to become members. When there is already an industrial court in the district in which the commercial court is instituted, the president and vice-presidents of the industrial court shall become president and vice-presidents of the commercial court also. Procedure in these courts is the same as in industrial courts except that no case involving less than 300 marks (\$72) can be appealed. The courts shall act as boards of conciliation and at the request of public authorities shall render opinions on questions relating to mercantile employment and apprenticeship contracts.

Such provisions of the law as relate to the creation of commercial courts shall take effect upon the date of publication (July 14, 1904); the remaining provisions shall take effect January 1, 1905.—*Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, Berlin, Germany, July, 1904.*

#### American Success in Trade.

A writer in a recent number of the *Times* bases some remarks on the causes of American success on an experience of 20 months' residence in St. Louis. He says that this success is obtained in the

face of disadvantages from which the English employer does not suffer, at least in not so acute a form.

The American employer contends with less efficient assistance from the rank and file, who, blessed with a restless temperament, are frequently prompted to change their allegiance to other firms in the hope of betterment. He is, to a greater extent than in England, hindered by strong labor unions, while politics, which affect so largely industrial conditions, are a factor of instability unknown in England.

Nevertheless, he succeeds, and I attribute this mainly to the fact that he is willing to take risks. Life, after all, is a game of chance, and he who will not play unless he is sure to win perforce stands by inactive, which amounts relatively to falling behind. An American is not content with one thriving business, but will speculate in another enterprise or 20, relying upon success in one to compensate for failure in another; whereas the Englishman, with his prejudice against novelty and his horror of failure, runs less risk, but at the same time less chance of a brilliant success. With him a new idea stands condemned for its very virtue, and unless it presents the elements of immediate success, and he can be assured that some one else has already done it, he seldom accepts the undertaking.

I once endeavored to introduce a new machine into England, and offered it on trial to a leading firm in the trade at no expense to them and with no conditions of purchase. They refused on the plea that they already had all the most up-to-date machines. Such a reply from an American firm is inconceivable. Another English firm refused to book orders because they had enough work for two years ahead. An American firm would, I imagine, have risked an extension of plant and a continuance of orders to recoup the outlay. These are two typical instances of the method of marking time which hardly constitutes progress.

Another risk the American will assume is to sell goods at a loss with a view to create a new market, relying upon the force of habit which leads a customer accustomed to a certain article to gradually pay an increasing price for it, until the sale becomes profitable.

Again, the American pays particular attention to the selection and promotion of his subordinates, trusting his judgment rather than testimonials and certificates, which play so important a rôle in England, and which are, after all, only the opinions of third parties. The American employer quickly gauges the value of his new assistant, and, if desirable, will promote him over the heads of his seniors who have staked a claim for advancement by sitting on office stools for a period of years. To place a new man suddenly in a position of command is a risk which is often worth the while. The American business man recognizes that the success of an enterprise largely depends upon efficient assistants, and it is his endeavor to secure the best and attach them to him by making their interest common with his own. It is men that tell, not systems. The judgment of an Englishman is liable to be affected by prejudices of caste, family connections, nationality, precedents, and past records. A recognition that intelligence and integrity stand before all other considerations is a wonderful lubricant to the wheels of progress.

A little more pluck and adaptability, combined with a knowledge of foreign languages and requirements, are essential, and an absence of prejudice



against the metric and decimal systems is not to be despised in the struggle for new markets on this as well as on the American continent.—*Marshall Halstead, Consul, Birmingham, England, Jan. 12, 1905.*

### Football in England.

In England, the workingmen, it is claimed, are injuriously affected by football. Two articles touching on this subject have recently appeared in English magazines, and the view they take of the question may be of interest to the American public. The first is from the *New Liberal Review* and cites the tendency to football and other sports as one of the signs of the "decay of industry." The following is a pertinent extract:

"Despite the modern talk about the dignity of labor workingmen evince but scant respect for labor as such. All over the country the evidence accumulates that they are the victims of the present-day tendency to leave work to take care of itself so long as ever-increasing opportunities can be secured, not for rational leisure, but for pleasure seeking. The Saturday half-holiday is coming to be supplemented more and more by a 'day off' on Monday, and Monday football matches are now a recognized institution. The occurrence of bank holidays is made the occasion of a suspension of work during several days following, and everybody knows to his cost the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of getting any work done for at least a week after the holidays. The observance of Mabon's day—a monthly whole holiday—in Wales has long been a standing grievance to the employers of men for whom the claims of their work seem to rank after all others. No reasonable or fair-minded person will grudge a generous allowance of holidays to the tollers and the breadwinners. But it is a just cause for censure that work should be held in such low esteem that any and every excuse should be deemed good enough for setting aside its obligations."

The second article appeared in *Macmillan's Magazine* and is directly to the point. These extracts will be found interesting:

"Large employers of labor in Yorkshire, in Lancashire, in Durham, and in Northumberland, as well as in the Midlands, have been obliged to yield to the rush of the tide and are powerless to command the interests of business against those of football. Momentous events, such as the launching

of a ship or the completion of an important order within contract time, have frequently been delayed by the coincidence of a 'cup tie.' Large establishments are occasionally closed in midweek because the whole body of workmen take it into their heads that their pets on the football grounds require encouragement. If these men were ordinary hewers of wood and drawers of water a remedy might be found, but they are chiefly skilled laborers—earn-ers of good wages—who need never be out of work, and who, if turned off, would be eagerly snapped up by a rival.

"Persuasion is useless, for money is no object to men who can make their £3, £4, and £5 (\$14.60, \$19.47, and \$24.33) for a week of five days; resistance is worse than useless; so the tyrannized employers have, in their own interests, actually to encourage what in their hearts they detest. Thus, as I have been told, a large shipbuilding firm in one of our northeastern ports has been forced to find good berths for a couple of first-rate football players during the summer months, merely to retain their services for the local club and to prevent them from being tempted away by a rival. If a man or a half dozen men are absent from their posts on a Wednesday or a Saturday nobody asks where they are, or if they are ill or dead; it being taken for granted that football somewhere has attracted them away. To ask leave of absence is, of course, an archaic superfluity. Jamie or Georgie wants to be at a certain game; he goes, and there is no more to be said about it."

The objection to football in England, then, is that it interferes with business and not that it occupies the time and uses up the pocket money of college students.

It must be remembered that football in England is largely professional, as baseball is in the United States, and that it is played six or eight months in the year and not confined to two months in the autumn. There are intercollegiate and interschool matches, but the chief interest in the game centres in the matches played by the professional teams. The interest felt in the game can be measured by the attention given it by the newspapers. Every day the announcement of games to come, and the reports of games played the previous day, occupy several columns in the leading newspapers, and the Saturday games demand a page and a half in Monday morning's newspapers.—*Walter C. Hamm, Consul, Hull, England.*

## STATISTICAL ABSTRACTS.

### Business Failures in Massachusetts and the United States.

The number of business embarrassments in the Commonwealth in 1904 was 985, an increase of 70 over 1903. The liabilities in 1904 were smaller than in the previous year by \$1,881,726; the assets amounted to 39.46 per cent or 2.23 per cent less than in 1903. There were in the United States 10,422 failures, or 654 more than in the previous year. The liabilities were smaller by \$10,976,248, than in 1903, and the assets amounted to 52.98 per cent, or 1.51 per cent less than in 1903. Comparisons for the two years are considered in the following tabular statement:

EMBARRASSMENTS, ASSETS, AND LIABILITIES.	1903	1904
<i>Massachusetts.</i>		
Number of embarrass- ments, . . . . .	915	985
Assets, . . . . .	\$6,424,267	\$5,340,206
Liabilities, . . . . .	\$15,410,244	\$13,528,518
<i>United States.</i>		
Number of embarrass- ments, . . . . .	9,768	10,422
Assets, . . . . .	\$84,060,471	\$75,927,364
Liabilities, . . . . .	\$154,277,093	\$143,300,845

EMBARRASMENTS, ASSETS, AND LIABILITIES.	INCREASE (+), OR DECREASE (-), IN 1904 OVER 1903	
	Number	Percent- ages
<i>Massachusetts.</i>		
Number of embarrassments,	+70	+7.65
Assets, . . . . .	—\$1,084,061	—16.87
Liabilities, . . . . .	—\$1,881,726	—12.21
<i>United States.</i>		
Number of embarrassments,	+654	+6.70
Assets, . . . . .	—\$8,133,107	—9.68
Liabilities, . . . . .	—\$10,976,248	—7.11

The reduction in the 1904 liabilities as compared with 1903 indicates that the year just passed was of less strain than the latter, and the lower percentage of assets confirms this.

In the United States in 1904, 10,417, or eight-tenths of one per cent of the 1,308,000 persons in business, failed. With the exception of the year 1903, this is the smallest percentage of failures since 1881, the highest percentage (1.50) occurring in 1893. These figures prove the incorrectness of the tradition that the larger portion of those who enter business fail. The number of persons in business in 1904 increased by 34,837, while the number of those failing was only 10,417.

The causes of the failures are classified under 11 headings in the following table, with percentages:

CAUSES OF FAILURES.	FAILURES FOR SPECIFIED CAUSES IN 1904		Percent- ages in 1903
	Num- ber	Percent- ages	
Incompetence, . . . . .	2,397	23	21
Inexperience, . . . . .	545	5	6
Lack of capital, . . . . .	3,358	32	33
Unwise credits, . . . . .	351	3	3
Speculation, . . . . .	86	1	1
Neglect, . . . . .	319	3	3
Extravagance, . . . . .	89	1	1
Fraud, . . . . .	895	9	10
Specific conditions, . . . . .	1,992	19	17
Failures of others, . . . . .	258	3	3
Competition, . . . . .	127	1	2
TOTAL, . . . . .	10,417	100	100

The first eight causes, due to the faults of those failing, constitute 77 per cent of all failures in 1904, those caused by outside occurrences being 23 per cent. Lack of capital, or what is equivalent, the effort to do too large a volume of business for the capital employed was the cause assigned for 32 per cent. Incompetence, due to poor selection of vocation, poor judgment or management, or actual unfitness for business entered upon accounted for 23 per cent of the year's failures. Specific conditions, such as financial panic or depression, fires, floods, crop failures, and any other cause beyond the individual's control accounted for 19 per cent of all the failures. — *Bradstreet's*, January 7 and 21, 1905.

#### The Cotton Industry in Virginia.

According to the Seventh Annual Report of the Labor Commissioner of Virginia, the total cotton crop for that State during the year 1903 amounted to 13,681 commercial bales, the equivalent of 13,074

five hundred-pound bales; a decrease of 16.27 per cent from 1902 and an increase of only 1.22 per cent over 1901. While the number of cotton mills in the State was reduced from seven in 1901 to five in 1903, the value of the manufactured product increased 26.42 per cent; the amount of wages paid increased 16.13 per cent, and the capital invested increased 19.64 per cent. There were 2,896 persons employed in the cotton mills; 270 males and 255 females under 16, and 1,427 males and 944 females over 16. The following table shows the average daily wages for the employees for 1901 and 1903:

BRANCHES OF OCCUPATIONS.	AVERAGE DAILY WAGES	
	1901	1903
Card hands (male), . . . . .	\$0.89	\$0.85
Card hands (female), . . . . .	.82	.79
Cloth hands (male), . . . . .	.89	.83
Cloth hands (female), . . . . .	.68	.67
Dressers (male), . . . . .	1.00	1.00
Dressers (female), . . . . .	.60	.75
Spinners (male), . . . . .	.77	.72
Spinners (female), . . . . .	.64	.72
Weavers (male), . . . . .	1.12	1.14
Weavers (female), . . . . .	.96	.92
Engineers, . . . . .	2.20	1.50
Foremen, . . . . .	—	3.15
General help, . . . . .	0.33½	1.14
Machine repairers, . . . . .	1.36	1.49
Yard hands, . . . . .	—	.99

It will be seen that in about 40 per cent of the occupations the average daily wages paid in 1901 were higher than those paid in 1903. Ten hours constitute a day's work; the average number of days operated during the year 1903 was 245.

#### Relief Department — Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Co.

The Sixteenth Annual Report of the Relief Department of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Co., covering the fiscal year ending June 30, 1904, shows the membership at the close of said year to be 46,198 persons, an increase of 4,415 over the membership of 1903. The following shows the class of benefits paid during the year, the number of payments, total cost, and average payments:

CLASSIFICATION.	Num- ber of Pay- ments	Total Cost	Average Pay- ments
Death from accidents on duty, . . . . .	196	\$211,000	\$1,076.53
Death from other causes, . . . . .	325	188,647	580.45
Disabilities—injury in discharge of duty, . . . . .	11,866	150,059	12.65
Disabilities—sickness and other causes, . . . . .	12,077	203,590	16.86
Surgical expenses, . . . . .	11,387	20,156	1.77
TOTAL, . . . . .	35,851	\$773,452	\$21.57

During the year the Relief Departments of the Pittsburgh & Western and the Pittsburgh Junction Railroad Companies were merged with that of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Co. The amount transferred from these two departments was \$54,518; the amount expended by the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Co. was the same as in the year 1903; i.e., \$16,000 contributed to the Relief Feature, and \$75,000 to the Pension Feature. The number of pensioners on the roll June 30, 1904, was 354; the amount paid

in pensions during the year was \$67,199. The amount of money loaned to employees during the year was expended in building 1,602 houses, buying 2,174 homes, improving 473 homes, and releasing liens on 1,227 properties. An extra dividend of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent was paid to depositors in the Savings Feature, making  $5\frac{1}{2}$  per cent for the year.

#### Fatal Accidents in Coal Mines—United States and Great Britain.

During 1903, there were 1,760 deaths in and about American coal mines (not including the unavailable returns of Kentucky and Maryland). The fatal accident rate was 3.19 per 1,000 employees, against an average of 2.94 for the 10-year period of 1894-1903, showing an actual as well as a material increase in the ratio of fatalities in mining operations. The actual number of deaths is probably from five to 10 per cent larger, because casualties are not reported for the smaller mines, and deaths resulting from accidents after a long illness are not reported to the authorities. During the past 20 years over 50 per cent of the accidents were caused by falls.

In the coal mines of Great Britain there were 1,049 fatalities in 1904, against 1,072 in 1903. Falls of ground accounted for 48.71 per cent of the deaths, injuries by mine cars or trams, shaft accidents, explosives, and fire-damp explosions were the other chief causes.—*Engineering and Mining Journal*, New York.

#### Automobiles in France and the United States.

The enormous increase in the automobile industry in France is shown in a recent number of *Bradstreet's*. From a total of 1,850 automobiles in 1898, valued at \$1,602,000, the output in 1904, according to the *Chambre Syndicate de l'Automobile de France*, has grown to 22,000 cars, of an estimated value of \$34,000,000. The growth of the French automobile trade is shown in the following table:

YEARS.	Imports	Exports
1898, . . . . .	\$76,249	\$337,625
1899, . . . . .	91,289	821,987
1900, . . . . .	99,781	1,817,481
1901, . . . . .	130,468	3,079,157
1902, . . . . .	210,370	5,938,031
1903, . . . . .	296,448	9,934,482
1904 (10 months), . . . .	585,369	12,164,211

The *Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance* reports that the exports of automobiles from the United States amounted to \$367,371 in 1901; \$1,069,782 in 1902; \$1,643,029 in 1903; and \$1,576,877 for the 10 months ending October 1904.

#### Business Failures in Canada.

In Canada, during the year 1904, there were 1,177 failures, 221, or 23 per cent, more than in 1903; the liabilities were 20 per cent greater. Probably because of its being a newer or less developed country, 62 per cent of its failures was due to lack of capital; this was eight per cent less than in 1903. Incompetence was the cause of 14 per cent of the number, specific conditions only five per cent; and other causes 19 per cent.—*Bradstreet's*, January 7 and 21, 1905.

#### Textile Operatives in Great Britain.

The latest Consular Report giving statistics of the textile industry in Great Britain shows the total number of operatives employed in 1901 to be 1,029,353, including 379,211 males and 650,142 females. The largest number employed in any one branch of the textile industry was 522,623 operatives in cotton goods. The women employed in cotton factories and workshops numbered 328,793, while the men numbered 193,830. Next in numerical importance ranked operatives employed in wool, worsted, and shoddy factories; the total of such operatives being 259,909. The other operatives that go to make up the grand total are classified as follows: In flax, jute, hemp, and China grass factories, 150,319; in silk factories, 31,555; in hosiery, 38,549; in lace factories, 17,902; and in elastic, cocoanut fibre, and horse-hair factories, 8,496.

#### Population of the United Kingdom in 1904.

The population of the United Kingdom in 1904 (exclusive of army, navy, and seamen abroad) was estimated to be 42,789,552. The estimated population of England and Wales in 1904 was 33,763,434; that of Scotland, 4,627,656, and that of Ireland 4,398,462.

#### Population of Spain.

According to the census of 1900, the population of Spain was 18,891,574, of which 9,087,821 were males and 9,803,753 females. The number unable to read and write, including children, is given at 11,000,000. That the number of illiterates is being slowly reduced is evidenced by the facts that in 1860 only 19.97 per cent of the population could read and write; in 1877, the proportion had increased to 24.48 per cent; 10 years later, to 28.49 per cent; and in 1900, to 33.45 per cent. The population of the largest cities follows: Madrid, 539,825; Barcelona, 533,000; Valencia, 213,550; Seville, 148,315.—*Julius G. Lay, Consul-General, Barcelona, Spain*.

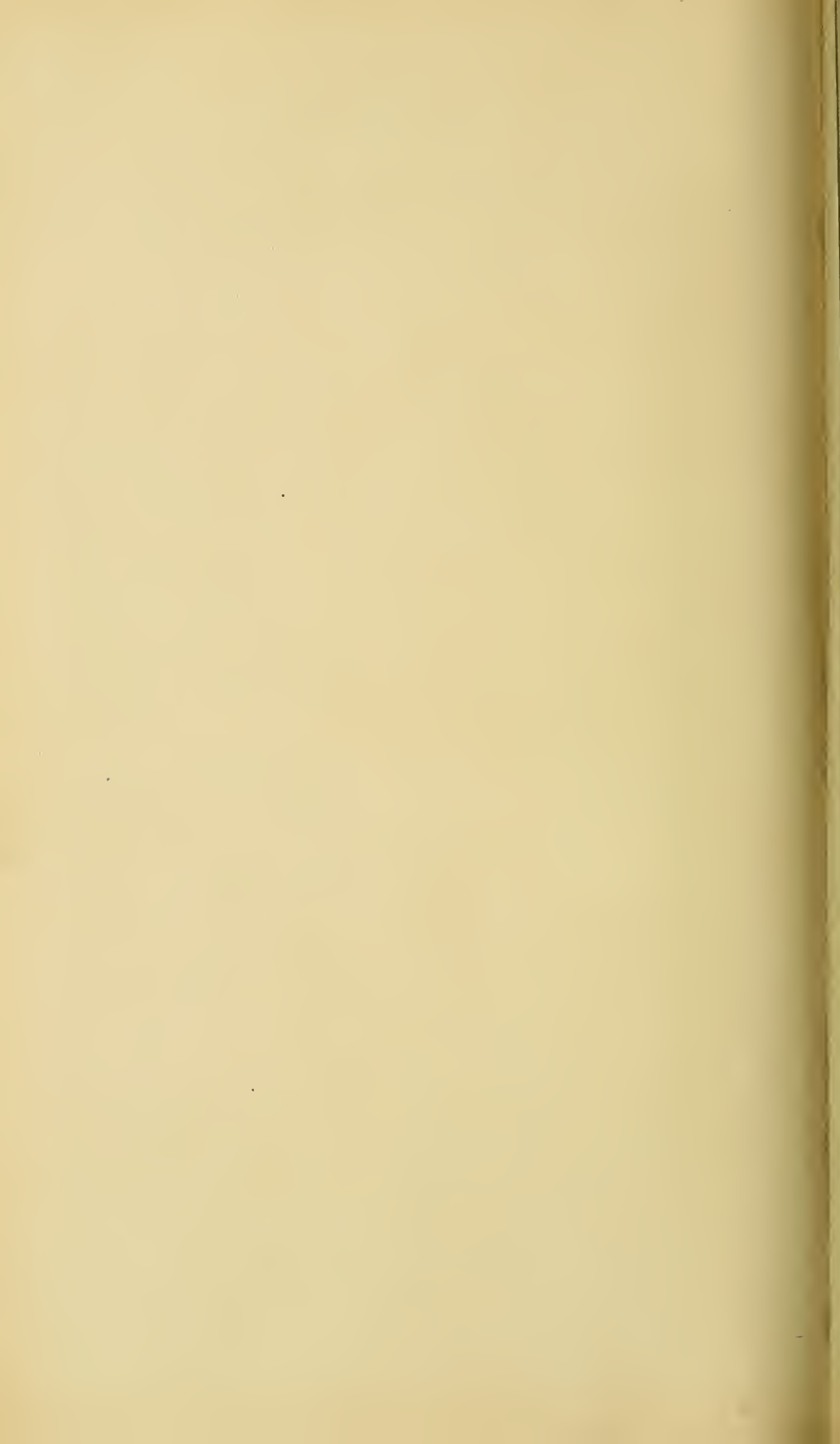
#### Strikes in Belgium.

In the 12 months from December 1, 1903, to November 30, 1904, there occurred in Belgium, 86 strikes, involving 12,433 strikers and enforcing idleness for about 3,200 other employees. Of the total number of strikes, 47, or 54.65 per cent, resulted from unsatisfactory wages, nine, or 10.47 per cent, from unsatisfactory hours of labor, and 30, or 34.88 per cent, from other causes chiefly shop-rules and objectionable employees. Considered from the strikers' standpoint 18 of the strikes (20.93 per cent) were successful, 49 (56.98 per cent) failed, and 19 (22.09 per cent) were compromised.—*Revue du Travail, Brussels, Belgium, 1904*.

#### Glass Workers' Strike in Belgium.

The cold-glass workers (cutters, packers, box-makers, and helpers), in the district of Charleroi, Belgium, the Consul at Brussels reports, boycotted certain manufacturers who, in February, 1904, had combined for defense and for the reduction of wages. In May, a strike involving some 10,000 men was declared, which became complete on September 1, at which time the reduction in wages became fully operative. There has been great suffering among the workmen, many families being reduced to extreme destitution. Money and supplies have been distributed by Union relief funds to workmen who agreed to pay for same upon the resumption













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